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Stewart's School Series.

HOME COMFORT:

A Complete Manual
OF
DOMESTIC ECONOMY

FOR SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

BY JANE STOKER,
LECTURER ON DOMESTIC ECONOMY AT STOCKWELL TRAINING COLLEGE;
AUTHOR OF "A MANUAL OF DOMESTIC ECONOMY.'

NEW EDITION, REVISED AND ENLARGED.

Sixth Thousand.

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NOTE TO NEW EDITION.

The letter (**A**) refers the reader to a Note in the Appendix on the current subject.

DOMESTIC ECONOMY.

CHAPTER I.

THE HOUSEHOLD.

Home is home, be it ever so homely.

THE HOUSEHOLD is a divine institution, first established in Eden, when GOD, ever mindful of His creatures' happiness, said, " It is not good for man to be alone; I will make him a help meet (fit) for him;" and when, Eve being given to Adam, the command went forth—" A man shall leave father and mother, and shall cleave unto his wife,"—that is, shall break away from former ties, and henceforth consider them secondary. By this it is ordained that a man shall have around him those nearest and dearest to him, —his wife and his children:—with them, his intercourse is to be constant:—father, mother, and children form the Divinely appointed Household.

Each Household should have a separate home, in order that the parents may have uninterrupted confidence between themselves and entire control over their children, for whose training they alone are responsible. The parents must take mutual counsel, must rule and guide; the children must obey and reverence. The nearer men keep to this Divine, natural plan, the greater will be the domestic happiness enjoyed by individuals. Were all households formed on this plan, home ties would be sacred, home enjoyments satisfying, and the worst of those evils that tend to the ruin of nations would be averted.

In all labour there is profit.

Much has been said in favour of common homes for several families. The advocates of such homes aver that labour and money would be saved by them. But such a system is unnatural, and must lead to much social evil and personal discomfort. The members of the families will get into the habit of living much in public, and will probably acquire a strong taste for public amusements, because they will be ignorant of the pure enjoyment to be found in a well-ordered household.

The father should indirectly rule the house. His wishes, expressed or understood, should be law: the household arrangements should be made with a view to his comfort and convenience; his calm judgment should be the sure helper of every member of the family when in doubt or difficulty. He is the bread-winner: his work lies chiefly abroad. "He is known in the gates,"—the places where business is transacted. Home should be to him a haven of rest. He should not directly interfere in the management of the house, which is the wife's province, nor should he be in any way troubled with household matters.

The mother is queen of the home, which she directly governs, being guided in her government by her husband's wishes. She should devote herself to what is her true life-work,—being herself a fit help for her husband, making the home a delight, and training her children into good and noble men and women.

What a grand picture of a good woman do we find, in that Book, where all pattern types of humanity are to be found! She does not speak of "woman's rights:" yet she rules right royally, for "the heart of her husband doth safely trust in her." He does not crave to get rich by unlawful mean—

by grinding the face of the poor. "He hath no need of spoil;" his lawful earnings are sufficient, dispensed by a careful, industrious wife. "She will do him good, and not evil:"—teach him, it may be, lessons of endurance and patient self-devotion,—urge him to do what is good and true; help him, with her quicker perception, when he is under difficulties,—cheer him, by her hopefulness, when he is cast down by worldly care. Her children and her servants are well fed and cared for; she purchases, herself, their food and clothing in the shop or market; "She perceiveth that her merchandise is good." Industrious as she is, she does not neglect her social, while attending to her domestic, duties. She finds time to relieve hte poor. The clothing of her family is suitable, good, and handsome. "She is not afraid of the snow for her household; for all her household are clothed in scarlet." Her home shows the presence of a woman, in those little refinements and elegancies which most good women deem important. "She maketh coverings of tapestry." Her opinion is worth having; her judgment is trustworthy. She is no scold: "in her mouth is the law," but it is "of kindness." She trains her children and servants in industry; "she looketh well to the ways of her household." She is beloved and respected,—therefore powerful in her sphere of duty.

The children in a household must be in perfect subjection to their parents, otherwise there cannot be peace at home; but the home rule must be such as will secure love and reverence, for love is the strongest motive to obedience. As early as possible, the little ones should be encouraged to help their mother, and to be thoughtful of her comfort. Where this training is neglected, the mother becomes the slave of her children, and ceases to hold that place in their hearts which should always be hers. The children of the ideal woman "rise up" in reverence, "and call her blessed" in gratitude and love. Her brightness, energy, and loving common sense are their example, and they have no greater pleasure than to yield honour and credit to her by their cheerful obedience and willing help. Where the mother has many duties to perform, the children should relieve her load. The boys should do the out-door work, and the fetching and carrying. They should be the hewers of wood and the drawers of water, and should understand that it would be unmanly for them to allow their mother or sisters to perform such work, while they, the stronger, stand by. Boys who are not trained to be helpful at home, are almost sure to become selfish.

As soon as possible, certain duties should be assigned to each girl, for the performance of which she is to be held responsible. The tastes of the children should be consulted in the allotment. Some girls have a taste for nursing, some for cooking, some for sweeping and scrubbing; but each should be trained in the whole round of work during some part of her girlhood.

The mother of five or six children, even if she have servants, is obliged to work hard while the children are young. She should be able to look forward to the time when they will lighten her labour; and her little ones ought to feel happy in anticipating the help they will give her when they are older and stronger.

CHAPTER II.

THE INCOME.

A virtuous woman is a crown to her husband.

The Earner.—In Anglo-Saxon times, before the people of England became "a nation of shopkeepers," the cultivation of the soil was the principal means of obtaining a livelihood. In the Anglo-Saxon tongue, the farmer was called a "husband;" just as he is now frequently called a husbandman. The word has, to some extent, changed its meaning, but the "husband" is still the bread-winner, going abroad into the field, the warehouse, or the workshop, to earn for his family the necessaries of life. "Lord" had originally a similar meaning:—its literal signification is "loaf-giver" or "bread-provider," and in this sense it is used in the earlier books of the Bible, where the patriarchs are spoken of as the lords of their households.

This bread-winning being the husband's province, he should be diligent in his endeavours to supply the means of keeping up a comfortable home. He must be industrious, making the most of his time. He must do his duty toward his employers, regarding their interests as his own; thus he will gain confidence and esteem, and may possibly improve his position and income. He must earn all he can without injury to his health or hindrance to his mental and moral growth. It is poor economy for a man to overtax his strength in order to earn money; and it is positively wicked to lower his moral nature by giving his whole attention to money-getting.

The Spender.—While the husband is the earner the wife is generally the spender of the income. As "lord" meant bread-provider, so "lady" meant bread-dispenser. On the way in which this duty is fulfilled, depend, almost entirely, the prosperity, the comfort, and the respectability of the family. Many an industrious husband is utterly disheartened by a careless, thriftless, indolent wife. The wife who sees her husband toiling and striving, yet does not exert herself to the utmost to give him the comfort of his earnings, is unworthy of her title, and is guilty of the grossest selfishness.

The natural place of the wife and mother is at home. Her presence is essential there, and under no ordinary circumstances should she go out to earn money. Should the husband's earnings be so small as to necessitate the most frugal style of living, the greatest economy and self-denial, still it is better for the wife to manage what she has—to devote her energies to the ruling of her house and the training of her children, than to sacrifice the comfort and welfare of her household for the sake of increased income.

Some wives prefer independent occupation, with larger means, to domestic work. Such women are thinking only of their own likes and dislikes, and are selfishly blind to the interests of husband and children. Some think that bv earning money at some occupation, more familiar to them than household duties, they can afford to pay others to perform the home-work for them. This is a mistake, which seems likely to increase as new occupations are daily developed in which the quick perception, the good taste, and the delicate hand-power of women are valuable. In factory districts it is quite common for the wife and mother to go out to work; in consequence, the children are untrained (especially the girls); there is no comfort in the home; the income, though large, yields little return, being swallowed up in the purchase of expensive food and unsuitable clothing; the former is spoilt by bad cookery, and the latter by slatternly neglect; the father and brothers are driven from home to seek elsewhere the comfort and the cheerful companionship that should refresh them after their day's labour; and this evil, going on from generation to generation causes much of the improvidence and intemperance so sadly rife among British workmen.

Sometimes the domestic training of a woman has been defective, and she finds the duties of a wife and mother difficult: she feels her deficiencies, and probably makes many mistakes. But a willing spirit works wonders, and a steady determination to learn will soon set such a one on the high road to good housewifery. If she possesses true womanly refinement, cleanliness and order will be necessities to her; —and necessity is the mother of invention. If she possesses true womanly taste, she will buy clothing and furniture, each suitable to its use, and will delight in contriving the numberless and nameless adornments that mark a woman's influence in the house. If she possesses true womanly tact and sympathy, she will instinctively soothe, comfort, cheer, and help every member of the household, and will herself

"Be served
By every sense of service which she renders."

Lightly earned, lightly spent.

CHAPTER III.

EXPENDITURE.

In order to manage the income well, it is necessary to look forward, and to make a plan of allotment, so that every need and every contingency may be provided for. For this purpose, it is well to divide the household expenses into contingent, occasional, and current.

Contingent Expenses are quite irregular, inasmuch as contingencies are unforeseen circumstances, which may arise often or seldom. Whenever they arise, they create sudden and imperative calls for money, and inability to meet such calls creates anxiety, which adds to the trouble brought by the contingency itself.

Thus, protracted illness is a contingency, which demands increased expenditure for medical attendance, medicines, and food. Should the sick person be the head of the family, the case is most serious, because then the income generally ceases.

Heavy contingent expenses are incurred when the mother is unable to perform her duties for a length of time. Death of any member of the household causes increased outlay for travelling, for funeral expenses, and for clothing. Temporary loss of employment, removal to a new dwelling, losses by fire, water, or other accident, are all contingencies that bring trouble and expense in their train. To meet such possibilities, a steady system of saving must be followed; a certain proportion of the income (however small) should be set aside, and deposited either in a Government Savings' Bank or (to meet the case of death or loss by fire) with an Insurance Society. Post Office Savings' Banks afford great facilities for saving, by receiving small sums from one shilling upwards, at any place and any time.

Many littles make a mickle.

The husband's life should be insured, so that in case of his decease, the wife and family may be able to start some means of livelihood, and thus, in their grief, be spared the additional weight of poverty or obligation.

Occasional Expenses.—In all households, circumstances occasionally arise which cause expenditure beyond that regularly incurred for the daily necessaries of life.

Outlay in connexion with ordinary sickness in the family, with travelling for health or for pleasure, and with the purchase of tools, books, etc., belong to this class. To prevent that most thriftless practice of buying goods on credit, or the misery of incurring debt, a portion of the income should be regularly kept back to meet such needs, and should be allowed to accumulate even when the circumstances do not occur for which the provision is made.

As the possession of money close at hand often tempts to unnecessary purchases and creates fancied wants, the fund for occasional expenses should be placed in a Post Office Savings' Bank.

Current Expenses are those which are running on from day to day and week to week. Rent, taxes, the cost of fuel, food, light, clothing, education, and materials for keeping the house and clothing clean and in good order, are all current expenses: to these, wages must be added, if servants are kept.

Accounts.—An accurate account must be kept of all expenditure. Only by this means can the housewife ascertain whether she is keeping each kind of expense within its proper limits. A pocket tablet, with pencil attached, should be considered a necessary part of her daily equipment, and on it all payments should be noted as they are made. At night, these notes should be entered in a ruled book kept for the

A little leak will sink a great ship.

purpose; and at the end of the week, the entries in this book should be added, and the result compared with the money in hand. By this plan, the housewife is enabled to see when she has exceeded the due amount for any necessity, and she can at once devise means to lessen the excessive expenditure.

The practice of noting down all expenses is a powerful check on the spending of small sums on trifles. The total of these small items is found to be considerable, and the truth is realised, "Take care of the pennies, and the pounds will take care of themselves." A wife who keeps strict accounts can satisfy her husband and herself that the income is properly applied; and the husband, respecting her business-like habits, will in most cases leave the expenditure entirely to her, and second her good management by care in his own out-door expenses. There will be no anxiety at the approach of rent day, or on account of over-due bills. The style of living will be exactly adapted to the means; and although privation and self-sacrifice may be often necessary (especially when the income is very small, and the heads of the family are people of education and refinement) these are small matters, when balanced by the self-respect and independence secured by such a course.

The Reserve Fund for occasional and contingent expenses must be the first thing considered when the income is received. This is most important. When a housewife waits to see what she can spare from present wants before provision is made for the future, she is seldom able to put away anything. She goes on from week to week, anxious to do right, but thinking she will be able to save after she has purchased this or that; new wants arise, and all is spent as it is earned, until the evil day of sickness or of accident comes suddenly and finds the household unprepared.

Cut your coat according to your cloth.

Division of Income.—It will be found a good plan to divide the whole income into twentieths, and allot these portions in the following manner:—Rent and taxes, three; food, and articles for household use, ten; clothing, four; education, one; insurance and reserve-fund, two.

CHAPTER IV.

THE DWELLING.

Choice of a Dwelling.—The outlay for rent and taxes has been given at three-twentieths of the income—that is, three shillings out of every pound earned. This may seem a large proportion; but it must be remembered that there is no economy in taking a low-rented house in a close neighbourhood. An attack of fever in the family will sweep away in a few days all the savings effected in this way.

It is a fact, too, that hardworking middle-class people, anxious to bring up their children respectably, are willing to pay as much as this in order to secure a comfortable home. Artizans, whose income is often much larger, frequently spend too little for this purpose, especially in the manufacturing and colliery districts. This is, no doubt, partly owing to the great want of houses with suitable accommodation and appliances for family use. Too often the respectable workman has no choice between a cottage of two or three rooms in a close court, or a house that is too large and too high-rented. This evil especially prevails in the coal-districts, where cottages containing only one room, or at the most two, are the only habitations. They are provided by the colliery-owners; and, wretched hovels as they are, are tenanted by men who can easily earn three or four pounds a week. In such homes there can be no decency or comfort, and it cannot be wondered that the morals, manners, and tastes of the inhabitants are half-brutalised. In some colliery villages, comfortable dwellings have of late been provided, and the men have eagerly availed themselves of them, with the result of a most decided influence for good;—the men live more at home, enjoy home-comfort, and show evident marks of increased self-respect and refined taste.

In most large towns, money invested in building comfortable houses for working people would bring a very good return. (*See Building Societies.*)

Sub-letting.—Rents are high in large towns; and though wages are also high, it is not always possible, keeping to the given rate of rent, to provide a comfortable dwelling, with convenience for performing the necessary household work. In London, for instance, the rent and taxes of such a dwelling would be at least £25 a year, which, with an income of £100 or even £120, would be too much. Two courses are open by which the difficulty may be overcome; the first is to sacrifice space and privacy by taking part of a house, the second is to take a larger house at about £30, and to make up the rent by sub-letting a portion of it, or by taking a lodger. This, of course, breaks in, to some extent, on the privacy of the household; but an industrious and cheerful family may do good in this way, by providing a bright, comfortable home for some young man engaged all day in business, and away from his own friends and from all personal good influences.

Neighbourhood.—The house should be in a respectable neighbourhood otherwise the children will live in a bad moral atmosphere, and will learn low habits by contact.

Eaten meat is hard to pay for.

Distance from Work and School.—The distance of a man's home from his place of business must depend on the nature of his work. Those engaged in sedentary employments should live where they can have half-an-hour's walk to and from business, and the walk should be, if possible, pleasant and airy. Where the distance is too great for walking, the cost of conveyance adds heavily to the rent.

Where there are children, the neighbourhood of a good school is desirable. When children have to go a great distance to their school, they are compelled to carry their mid-day meal with them; they miss the family dinner, with its accompanying training in good behaviour at table, and are likely to catch cold or get into other mischief during the dinner-hour.

The vicinity of a common, an open meadow, or a park is a great advantage, affording a place of healthy recreation for the whole family.

Aspect.—The house should face the South, South-West or West, in order that it may get the sun's rays during the best part of the day. In a house into which the sun never shines, the air is never thoroughly warm or dry, and the tenants are subject to gloom and depression of spirits. This results in fretfulness, ill-temper, and a craving for tea or even stronger stimulants; then follow loss of appetite, and general debility, which render the body a ready subject for attacks of ague and fever, diseases of the throat and chest, and chronic rheumatism. Sunlight brings energy and brightness to all animal life, and especially to man; and the state of the temper depends so much on the state of the bodily health that we may almost see sunshine reflected from the faces of a family living in a bright, open, cheerful house, while gloom repeats itself in the appearance and manner of those who live in a dark and cheerless one.

Keep a thing seven years, and you will find a use for it.

Position.—The house should be on high or sloping ground. If the position is low, the water from higher ground drains down to it and renders the atmosphere cold and foggy.

CHAPTER V.

THE DWELLING (continued).

Soil.—A house should be built on a gravelly soil, not on clay. Gravel allows water to pass through it into natural underground channels; but clay is waterproof, and the rain that falls on its surface remains there, making the houses built on it damp and unwholesome, besides rendering the surrounding air cold and raw.

Drainage.—Good drainage is of the very utmost importance in a house. Far too little thought is given to this matter. Even in country places, fever and a host of other diseases often rage fiercely, because people trust to the "fresh air" for health, forgetting that air cannot be fresh when it blows over soil saturated with stagnant water or foul sewage. A house standing on undrained ground becomes damp by contact, and instances are often found of walls absorbing the pestilential matter that should be carried off by drainage.

In a populous neighbourhood the waste substances from the houses are washed into underground drain-pipes. In decaying, these substances give off poisonous gases, which are likely to escape, through the drain-mouths, into the houses; these gases, mixing with the air we breathe, cause fever and cholera. To prevent the entrance of these invisible enemies, the mouth of the drain-pipe should be closed by a bell-trap, which allows fluid to run down the tube, but lets nothing pass up it. The gases sometimes ooze though the sides of the drains, and so become mixed with the air. The best means of preventing this, is to use glazed earthenware pipes, through which gas cannot escape.

Size.—On the size of the house depend much of the comfort and refinement of the home, as well as the health of the household. Should the sleeping accommodation be insufficient, the members of the family, during many hours of the night, are breathing air that has been rendered impure by previous use. When the house does not contain proper places in which to perform the work, all are rendered uncomfortable by feeling themselves in the midst of it. A dwelling for a household consisting of father, mother, boys, and girls, should contain at least three sleeping-rooms, a living-room, which may be kitchen and sitting-room, a scullery (containing a copper) in which to do the rough dirty work, and perform the family washing, and a pantry where the food may be kept fresh and cool. Eating and living in sleeping-rooms should be avoided on the score of health and comfort.

Age and State of Repair.—These are important considerations to a tenant. A perfectly new house is often not dry, and causes colds and rheumatism. An old house, on the other hand, is a constant trouble. The floors and walls are uneven, and afford resting-places for dust and vermin; modern appliances for saving labour are generally wanting; and there is the annoyance of constant need of workmen in the house, mending sash-lines, easing doors, stopping leaks in the roof, and so on. Should the landlord be unwilling to repair such faults, the tenant suffers great inconvenience or serious loss:—drain-pipes leak, causing damp walls and bad smells, with all their attendant evils;—or rain water, penetrating the roof, soaks in and brings down the plaster of the ceiling beneath.

Arrangement of Rooms.—The height of the house has a great influence on the performance of the work. There is much more labour in a house of three storeys than in one of two, though the number of rooms may be the same in both; because there must be more stairs, and consequently more climbing. Basement or "underground" rooms are bad, because the air below the general level is colder, damper, and therefore heavier than that at the surface; and unless the greatest care is taken with regard to ventilation, it lies like stagnant water in a hole in the ground. Besides, such rooms seldom get sunlight enough to make them healthy and cheerful.

The rooms should be well arranged with respect to each other. The dining-room (should there be one) should be near the kitchen. The scullery should be close to the kitchen, and should open into it, as well as into the yard. Neither bed-rooms nor sitting-rooms should open into each other, as this would render them, at times, quite inaccessible.

CHAPTER VI.

THE DWELLING (continued).

Bed-Rooms.—These should be as large as possible, to contain a sufficient quantity of air for the sleepers' breathing. If a man were shut up in a room or box measuring six feet in every direction, he would die in an hour, poisoned by the vapour (carbonic acid gas) breathed out from his own lungs; it is evident, therefore, that some means should be provided for carrying off this poisonous gas, and substituting fresh wholesome air in its place. Most rooms have a chimney, which in some degree does this; a room without a chimney or some such means of ventilation is totally unfit for a sleeping apartment, unless the door is kept open all night. Most of the bad air rises to the upper part of the room, and some of it will therefore go up the chimney, but this is not a sufficient outlet; all bedroom windows should be so constructed as to let down at the top, to allow of the necessary ventilation. Of course, closed register-grates, or any contrivance that stops up the chimney, must be avoided.

Eight hundred cubic feet of space are requisite for each occupant of a room; and unless some outlet is provided for the bad air breathed from the body, this space becomes like a pool of dirty water which the occupant drinks in again and again. There must also be an arrangement for supplying a constant current of good air, to replace that which has been spoiled, and this without creating a cold draught. If the fresh air is to be admitted directly from the outside of the house, it should come in small streams through a strip of perforated zinc, made to fix tightly across the division between the lower sash and the window-frame when the window is open at the bottom. The bad air will best escape by a similar contrivance at the top.

Bath-Rooms or Lavatories.—However small the house may be, it should contain some place that can be used as a bath-room or lavatory, where there is abundance of water, and where no injury will be caused by splashing. In an ordinary house, a light closet or a very small bedroom might be set apart for this purpose. It should contain washing apparatus only, and the floor should be covered with oil-cloth, to prevent the water from passing through the floor to the ceiling below. Such a room should be the general lavatory of the house. Confusion and dirt will thus be avoided in the bedrooms. Besides, thorough washing cannot be performed in sleeping apartments:—the necessary furniture of such rooms unfits them for the purpose.

Who spends before he thrives, starves before he thinks.

In very small houses, where it may be impossible to set apart a room especially for washing, the scullery should be the bath-room. There will probably be a good supply of water already laid on, and a large tub can be made to serve as a bath.

A good strong bath placed close to the water-tap would cost but a small sum in the building of a house; and workmen who, by the aid of Building Societies, are erecting dwellings for themselves, might easily afford this comfort. Some provision of this kind is specially needed by those whose work causes perspiration and dust. The importance of bathing is sadly overlooked. Children in large towns grow up in ignorance of the delightful exhilarating effects of a plunge in plenty of water. Many workmen wash only the hands and face in the morning; they are consequently languid, drowsy, and lacking in energy at their work; to throw off this feeling of lassitude, they too often take beer or stronger stimulants, and a bad habit is incurred, which would have been avoided by the daily use of a bath, and care in the ventilation of the sleeping-room. A rapid plunge, seconded by rubbing with a coarse towel, sends the blood bounding along, and produces a glow that is sure to drive away depression, and prevent liability to cold. Children, too, are easily and quickly washed where such appliances are at hand.

Sitting-Room.—Many very comfortable and well-managed homes do not allow of a room being specially set apart as a sitting-room; the kitchen serves also as dining and general living-room, and all rough dirty work is performed in the scullery. With care and good management, such a living-room may be always cheerful and bright; and it will be found that a far greater amount of comfort can be secured by this plan, than by living in a small parlour, often insufficiently warmed and ventilated.

Do not make your sail too large for your ship.

The sitting-room, especially if, as has been supposed, it is to be also a "best kitchen," should be large enough to accommodate the whole household; and the scullery should be fitted with a stove and with a copper for washing. This will allow the cooking and ironing to be done there in the summer-time, and the living-room will be kept cool and pleasant. Where the stove is not practicable, a tube may be fixed on the gas-jet, the other end of it being connected with a small gas-stove, which may be purchased for one-and-sixpence. This will suffice for boiling water, frying, cooking potatoes, and (if a plate of iron is placed over it) heating irons.

The Parlour or Drawing-Room.—If no servant is kept, and it becomes possible to have another apartment, it will be comfortable and convenient to keep it as a sitting-room. "Drawing-room" means a withdrawing or retiring-room; parlour, (from the French parler, to speak) a room for conversation. Both names imply that such rooms are intended for leisure and retirement. The parlour or drawing-room should be enjoyed by the household, not shut up, as it too often is, and never opened except for visitors or for show; but every member should understand that no work that creates disorder should be performed there. The best kitchen is still the general living-room; the parlour or drawing-room should be kept free from litter, and ready for the reception of visitors.

Where a general servant is kept, a small kitchen will be sufficient; but there must be a good room for family use, and to serve as a dining-room. If the income will allow of two such family-rooms, one must still be used for general purposes and for meals, the other being kept free for leisure and recreation.

The Dining-Room should be on a level with the kitchen, and not far from it, in order that labour may be economised in fetching and carrying.

When fools make mistakes, they blame Providence.

Passages and Staircases.—Every room should open on to a passage or landing, not into another room only. The use of passages is to protect rooms from draughts of cold air, and to secure privacy.

The Staircase, for the same reason, should lead directly from the passage, not from any room. The stairs should not be steep or winding, or they are dangerous, especially for children and old people. Both passages and staircases should be well lighted. Dark, winding stairs are fruitful sources of serious accidents, in many cases crippling persons for life.

CHAPTER VII.

FURNITURE.

The house should be furnished with all that is really necessary, before the expenses of housekeeping commence. Unless this is done, young housekeepers will bring upon themselves much care and anxiety, and will find it almost impossible to keep out of debt, for the cost of furniture cannot be taken from the regular income.

Quantity.—When the important business of furnishing commences, the purchasers will do well to buy only what is really necessary, and this of the best quality. A list of the requirements of each part of the house should be made out beforehand; otherwise carpets and sofas will absorb all the funds, and the intending housekeepers will find themselves without kettles or saucepans.

Quality.—The rule that the best is the cheapest is the golden rule of furnishing. The chairs and tables are to be life-long friends,—the constant companions of the home life,—round which will cling the dearest associations. Surely, then, they should be honest and

Content with little is the truest riches.

respectable chairs and tables, strong and stout-hearted, good types of their owners; like them, ready to face the battle of life, and do hard service therein.

Cheap pretentious furniture at once reveals the character of its buyers; it is made of unseasoned material, and as it becomes dry, warps and falls to pieces, involving its unfortunate possessors in continual expense. Unless the best quality of upholstered chairs and sofas can be afforded, the former should be of hard wood, or cane-seated with loose cushions made for them, and the latter should be covered with hair-cloth. Such goods are far preferable to those covered with common damask, which soon catches dirt and becomes shabby. The most durable kind of upholstered furniture is stuffed and covered with horsehair.

Young people are likely to be tempted by cheap furniture, which is only made to sell, and will not wear. Such goods look very well in the shop;—as well, perhaps, as the same kind of articles at double the price; but they are only cheap imitations, and should be avoided.

Second-Hand Furniture, that is good and has been well kept, is better than new. The very best qualities may be obtained for the price of poor new articles: the only objection to be made to it is the possibility of dirt, especially in regard to upholstered goods; but this danger can be avoided by the use of judgment in the selection.

Danger of Over-Furnishing.—The house should not be crowded with furniture. Crowding causes inconvenience, increases labour, and, by occupying space, diminishes the quantity of air in the room. People who are compelled to live in towns and cities should avoid the use of many hangings and much upholstered furniture. It will be found almost impossible to keep such articles clean and fresh; and, as

Those who look not before, find themselves behind.

they imbibe and retain whatever impurities may be in the atmosphere, they soon acquire a musty smell, which taints the air and is very disagreeable.

BEDROOM. FURNITURE REQUISITE:

IRON BEDSTEAD,
WOOL MATTRESS,
WASHSTAND,
TIN WARE (BATH &c.),
CHEST OF DRAWERS,
DRESSING GLASS,
CARPET,
PALLIASSE,
HAIR MATTRESS OR FEATHER BED,
TOILET WARE,
TOWEL-HORSE,
DRESSING TABLE,
CANE CHAIRS,
FENDER AND FIRE-IRONS.

Iron Bedsteads should always be used in preference to wood, as being incomparably cleaner.

The rule that the best is the cheapest applies especially to iron goods, and most especially to bedsteads. If the iron is of poor quality, it bends or breaks easily.

The laths of bedsteads often become rusty, from the slight dampness that comes through the palliasse: the rust of course eats away the laths and rots the palliasse. A few sheets of strong brown paper, or a piece of felt drugget, laid between the bedstead and the palliasse, will prevent this.

Spring Mattresses are excellent beds; and though their first cost is high, it is to be remembered that they save expenditure on other mattresses and beds, which are unnecessary where these are used.

Covering of Bedding.—All mattresses and beds should be covered with stout linen ticking. The cost of this is double that of cotton, but the latter (or even a mixture of linen and cotton) wears out much sooner.

Feather-beds should be enclosed in holland cases, which can be easily removed and washed; the sides of the mattresses, being exposed, should also be covered with the same material or with unbleached calico. Without such care, in a few years the beds will need new ticks, and the mattresses require recovering; by the use of these contrivances the bedding is kept constantly in good order.

Blankets must be of pure wool; any admixture of cotton increases the weight, without increasing the warmth.

Sheets.—Stout linen sheeting is in most respects preferable to cotton. The first expense is far greater, but it will wear three times as long, besides being fresher and pleasanter in use, and easier to wash. Calico sheeting is warmer to the touch than linen, and may, therefore, be provided for winter use, and for children or old persons; a very soft kind of cotton called blanket sheeting is especially adapted for this purpose.

Counterpanes should be warm, but light. Heavy coverings are most injurious, causing bad dreams and general restlessness. Hence light woollen counterpanes for winter, and thin Marcella ones for summer, are to be chosen in preference to heavy cotton knotted or knitted quilts;—besides, they are more easily kept clean.

Hangings should be of washing material such as chintz, dimity, or cretonne. Unless they can be kept very clean and fresh, it is better to do without them altogether. They add much to the household work, and are not really necessary.

Wooden Furniture.—As a general rule, polished hard wood (ash, birch, or mahogany) is better for furniture than painted deal, being cleaner in wear; but it costs more.

For washstands painted deal is of course the cheapest, but it cannot be kept in such good order as marble and polished wood. The top of a wooden washstand should be covered with oil-cloth to preserve the paint. Marble-topped washstands are apt to cause chipping of the jugs and basins.

Out of debt, out of danger.

Chests of drawers should be very carefully chosen; for if of unseasoned or soft wood they unceasingly cause annoyance and untidiness from the difficulty of opening and shutting them.

Dressing-tables need not be expensive articles of furniture. Plain deal tables, draped with muslin, cretonne, or print, are cheap and pretty.

Carpet.—Good Kidderminster or Scotch carpeting is best for bedrooms. It should be all wool, and will cost about three shillings a yard. Cheaper kinds contain cotton, and soon wear dirty. Bedroom carpets should not cover the floor under the bed or the heavy furniture, but should be so made that they can be frequently taken up and shaken.

A piece of oil-cloth should be laid in front of the washstand; and some little contrivance of paper or muslin, or both, should be fastened to the wall behind the stand to shield the wall-paper from splashes. In a house where there is a general lavatory the washstands will, however, be seldom used.

Nothing but absolute necessaries should be allowed as furniture in a bed-room.

CHAPTER VIII.

LIVING-ROOM. FURNITURE REQUIRED:

MATTING OR OIL CLOTH,
SIDE TABLE,
EASY CHAIR,
RUG,
LARGE TABLE,
SIX CHAIRS,
FENDER AND FIRE IRONS,
PRESS, OR MOVEABLE CUPBOARD, (IF THERE IS LITTLE CUPBOARD ROOM).

Where this room is to serve the treble purpose of best kitchen, dining-room, and sitting-room, it must be furnished with this three-fold object in view.

Floor Covering.—Carpet is totally unsuitable for

He that goes borrowing, goes sorrowing.

such a room, as some cooking must be performed there; oil-cloth would be better, because it can be washed daily, but it is too cold for a sitting-room.

Cocoa-nut matting is the most suitable covering, but it should be thoroughly shaken at least twice a week.

A large warm rug should lie at the hearth. This should be taken up during the performance of the morning's work, and laid down again when the room is brushed up, and exchanges its more kitchen-like aspect for its afternoon or sitting-room character. Unless the floor-covering is kept quite clean and whole, it does not add to the comfort of the room.

Tables.—These should be made with legs at the corners. Tables with a central foot or with bracket-legs will not bear the hard wear of every-day use; they become rickety and uneven, or even give way entirely, when heavy weights are put on them.

The side-table is very useful as a temporary resting-place for articles that have to be laid aside for a short time. If no such provision is made, the father's book or newspaper, or the mother's work-basket, put aside while the evening meal is arranged, will be found probably on the floor or the chairs, littering the room, and delighting the younger children, who are very likely to consider them as lawful playthings and treat them accordingly. Nothing should be placed on this table, however, that can reasonably be put entirely away in a place of its own.

Chairs.—These should be of hard polished wood, and of plain make, for such a room. A good housewife will probably find means to make a cushion or two, covered with washing material, for the chairs of the older members of the family; these will be found not only comfortable, but economical, since they save the dress from rubbing against the wood and so becoming "shiny."

Short reckonings make long friends.

Comfort and Appearance of the Room.—The well-kept living-room of an artizan's home often has about it an air of comfort and refinement, that is wanting in many an expensively-furnished apartment. Look at these two pictures, and see if it is not so:—

The mid-day meal has been cleared away, into that workshop of the cottage-home, the scullery. Outside all is cold and cheerless, but this only renders more bright and comfortable by contrast, the warm deep red of the tiled floor,—the rich dark brown of the old oak table in the corner,—the twinkle of the firelight reflected from the polished tins and candlesticks and the bright steel of the fire-irons—the spotless deal table—the simple china ware arranged in the little cupboard in the corner. In front of the hearth lies a large warm patchwork rug (made by the little ones during the winter evenings) on which puss purrs in quiet enjoyment; and the good man, with the year-old baby on his knee, is enjoying a few minutes of leisure ere work re-commences. Does not the whole convey an idea of peace and comfort?

Here is another interior, unhappily too common. The family is of the class called genteel; but the income is small, and much energy is spent in contriving to keep up appearances. A poor little untrained maid is clearing up, to the best of her ability, in a dirty kitchen, where dire confusion reigns. The sitting-room or dining-room is dull and cheerless; for fuel must be economised, and keeping up two fires is expensive. The faded carpet and rug proclaim their wrongs by sending out a cloud of dust whenever trodden on. The dingy window and the broken Venetian blind seemed to have missed their proper vocations and taken to mending each other's shortcomings; for the first is trying to keep out the tell-tale sunlight, and the second is doing its best to expose the whole to the honest day. Chairs and a couch, with covers stained and torn, reveal startling mysteries in the art of cheap upholstery;—there is perhaps a piano, but the case and keys bear the marks of sticky fingers, and the tones produced by a touch are a jangling discord.

Which of these pictures shows real refinement, and which vulgarity? Who would not say that the comfort and pleasantness of the room depend, not on the style of the furniture, but on the condition in which it is kept?

CHAPTER IX.

DINING-ROOM. FURNITURE REQUIRED:

CARPET,
HEARTH-RUG,
FENDER AND FIRE-IRONS,
DINING TABLE,
SIDE-TABLE OR SIDEBOARD,
WINDOW CURTAINS,
CHAIRS.

If the room is to be also the general living-room, we must add to the above a couch or a couple of easy chairs; but where it is to be used only as a place for meals, its furniture should consist solely of articles necessary for that purpose.

Carpets.—For this room, a good Kidderminster or Scotch carpet is suitable. Brussels carpeting is handsome and durable, but it will cost two shillings a yard more than the others, and look very little better. Tapestry carpet soon looks shabby, because the face wears off, and leaves the hempen foundation bare and white. Felt carpeting also wears white, and it is exceedingly difficult to make it fit nicely. It is best to choose a small pattern, because the material can then be cut to advantage; and, in the two kinds named, different shades of crimson or green wear

All is not gold that glitters.

best. Moss or coral-like patterns are always pretty; but, above all, "striking" patterns should be avoided, in carpets as in other things. The hearthrug should match the carpet.

Fender.—This should be of cast-iron, with a steel top.

Curtains.—If window-hangings are used, they should be of woollen damask, rep, or moreen. In summer, white muslin may be substituted. Curtains, however, are not positive necessities.

Sideboard.—A sideboard is better, if it can be afforded, than a side-table, because it is fitted with cupboards for keeping the cruet-stand, glasses, and other table-furniture.

DRAWING-ROOM. FURNITURE REQUIRED:

CARPET,
HEARTH-RUG,
FENDER AND FIRE-IRONS,
WINDOW-CURTAINS,
CHIMNEY-GLASS,
ROUND OR OVAL TABLE,
SIDE-TABLE,
CHIFFONIER,
CHAIRS,
COUCH.

Use of the Room.—Though not a necessity, a room of this kind is a most enjoyable and simple luxury, which if managed properly, is a means of refinement, most beneficial to every member of the household. It is not essential that it should be very large or expensively furnished, or even that it should be fitted up with a certain set of chairs, tables, and other articles, known as a drawing-room suite. The furniture may be of the simplest description: but all should be daintily clean, and each thing should accord with everything else.

Character of the Furniture.—There should be nothing pretentious or gaudy—good taste is far before fine furniture. The room should be adorned chiefly with the work of members of the household—pencil or crayon drawings, sketches in oil or water-colours, One fine thing needs two to set it off.

needlework, and curiosities valued for their beauty or their associations rather than for their intrinsic worth. It should show the taste and ingenuity of the family rather than the extent of their income. Here are the "coverings of tapestry" and all the contrivances that show the softening presence of a good woman, anxious to make her home attractive.

The wall-paper should be of a delicate neutral tint; the colour and pattern of the carpet must not strike the eye by brilliancy or size; the curtains, if coloured, should match or contrast with the carpet and furniture; everything should tend to produce a restful effect on the occupants.

Colour of Furniture.—Green is the most restful and pleasant colour, but a room furnished entirely in green looks rather sombre. White curtains in summer-time, and a crimson table-cover in winter, relieve such furniture by giving lightness or warmth suitable to the season. Much crimson, however, has too brilliant an effect. Drab colours should be relieved by blue. A good effect is produced by covering the chairs and couch with chintz or cretonne, the curtains being of the same material and pattern.

Description of an Inexpensively-furnished Drawing Room.—A room of the following description would be within reach of many persons of moderate means.

The room might be small; the floor covered with green Kidderminster carpet,—the pattern of moss, coral, or fern—and a rug to match. An American folding-chair; another of some light and fanciful pattern; four or five light chairs of cane or fancy wood, all of different patterns; footstools; a table, round or oval; a very bright grate and fire-irons:—these are the substantial parts of the furniture. Cushions and covers and other articles of needlework;

Well begun is half done.

one pair of vases of simple and beautiful form; a Parian statuette; a wire flower-stand with plants; drawings, paintings, or photographs on the walls; leno or lace curtains:—these are the tasteful accessories. The finishing touch will be given by a vase, containing a few fresh sweet-scented flowers.

KITCHEN. FURNITURE REQUIRED:

STRIP OF MATTING,
LARGE DEAL TABLE,
FENDER AND FIRE-IRONS,
SMALL TABLE,
CHAIRS.

When this room is not required to serve the double purpose of family living-room and kitchen, the furniture will consist chiefly of those articles used in cooking and serving the food. It must, however, be the servants' living-room, and should on that account be bright and cheerful.

Floor-Covering.—A strip or square of matting is very comfortable; but it should only be put down after the cooking is done.

The Fender and Fire-irons should be large and strong; the former should be of iron, with flat bars across the top, kept bright by daily polishing.

The Table must be of deal or other white wood, and must be daily scrubbed with soap and sand.

Chairs for the kitchen should be of hard wood, and very strongly made.

General Arrangement.—A well-arranged kitchen has nothing in it that is likely to harbour dust. Everything is of a kind that can be kept scrupulously clean, as befits a place where the food is cooked. Clean, bare floor, table, and dresser, are more suitable than carpeted floors and covered tables. The cheerfulness of the room is due chiefly to the brightness and purity of the articles it contains.

Buy what you do not want, and you will sell what you cannot spare.

The dresser is one of the most useful fittings of a kitchen. It is generally the property of the landlord, being a fixture to the house. It should be of white wood, fitted with drawers; and with a small cupboard at each end, and an open compartment in the centre for bright saucepans, stands, etc. In the cupboard are stored dry goods used in cooking: in the drawers are kept the kitchen table-cloths, clean kitchen towels, cloths, and dusters. The table-top of the dresser holds the soup tureen and vegetable dishes of the dinner-service, while the shelves above hold the plates, placed on edge and kept from slipping by a strip of beading along the front. Hooks are screwed into the front edge of each shelf, to receive the polished kitchen coffee-pot, tea-pot, and jugs.

This makes one side of the kitchen look bright. Another side is ornamented with a range of gleaming dish-covers; a third, with a shelf on which the tea-trays are arrayed. The mantel-piece is adorned with the smaller kitchen requisites,—gravy-strainer, meat-tongs, bright canisters, and saucepan lids.

Beside the fire-place should stand the flour-barrel, closely covered, and, on the opposite side, the bright meat-screen.

The Scullery is entirely a workshop, and requires no furniture, properly so called. It should be provided with a stone sink where cooking utensils should be washed, and a rough bench or table beside it on which to stand the dirty plates, or other things carried thither to be cleansed. Over the sink should be the plate-rack; and a few shelves and hooks should be firmly fixed to the walls for the accommodation of the larger saucepans, frying-pans, kettles, and other articles that would look unsightly in the kitchen. The housemaid's box is also kept here, with its store of rubbers, Bath-brick, black-lead and brushes, and other

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Woman's work is never done.

articles for polishing grates and metal-work: and the sweeping-brushes, brooms, and dust-pan are hung against the walls. Where there is no separate wash-house, the scullery contains the copper, and all the tubs, washing-stools, clothes-baskets, pegs, and so on, have also to find a lodging there. But a small wash-house is a great convenience, not only because it allows of these things being kept apart, but because it prevents the need of removing, every washing-day, the metal utensils which the steam would rust or spoil.

STAIRCASE AND PASSAGE.

Covering and Matting.—Flooring, if of wood, should be covered with oil-cloth, kamptulicon, or cocoa-nut matting. If of tiles, the floor needs no covering.

A strong mat of cocoa-nut fibre should be laid at every door that opens directly to the outside of the house, and a lighter one (of the same material, but with a border of coloured wool) at every room-door.

Stairs should be painted at the sides, and covered in the centre with wool carpeting, costing from two to four shillings a yard, according to its width.

CHAPTER X.

HOUSEHOLD WORK.

Those are not the most industrious housewives who seem to be at work from morning till night: this is often only the result of bad management and want of energy. In this respect, a woman is to be measured by what she does, not by the number of hours she is at work; the best managers seem to have least to do, and yet are never idle.

Short reckonings make long friends.

Forethought.—Much time is lost in many houses by want of forethought and arrangement. A thoughtless woman goes upstairs to make the beds, and coming down, finds the kitchen fire nearly out, though it is just time to begin cooking the dinner;—or she has to sit down and wait while the water gets hot for washing, or the irons for ironing, just because she has been giving no thought to her work. If she keeps a servant, she expects a half-trained girl to be expert in managing the work, forgetting that the mistress owes a duty to her maid—the duty of guidance and teaching;—or, if the servant is willing, industrious, and anxious to do herself credit, the mistress calls her away from her work to go on errands that a little foresight would have rendered needless.

Consideration for others.—The husband and those members of the household who are abroad during the day, should suffer no inconvenience from household work; to them, home should be the place of rest. Everything should be so planned as to leave the wife at liberty to converse with the husband and children when they return from work or school; it is her duty, as well as her right, to be their companion, and not a mere drudge.

It is necessary, too, so to arrange the work that the servant (if one is kept) shall feel herself sometimes at leisure. Many servants would work far more heartily than they do, if they could look forward to a little rest and quiet enjoyment in the evening; and a wise mistress will give a willing maid this encouragement to work heartily and "finish up" her more active duties.

Early Rising.—In all households, early rising is the foundation of true economy of time. It is a pitiful task to spend the day in trying to overtake one's work. It is intolerable to feel that every duty is a

Small service is true service while it lasts.

toil, because other duties are urging their claims on the hurried mind, and that the slightest interruption—even if of a pleasant kind in itself—is an annoying hindrance.

Economy of Time.—Every day should have its regularly-recurring duties, so arranged that the performance of one does not interfere with that of another. Well-managed homes have a daily, a weekly, and a half-yearly routine of work. The daily work consists of the ordinary sweeping and dusting of each part of the house, the preparation of each meal, and the portion of laundry work allotted to each day during washing-week. The weekly routine comprises the extra cleaning of different portions of the house on certain days. The half-yearly work is the still more thorough cleaning which is done in spring and autumn, when heavy carpets are taken up, ceilings whitewashed, walls cleaned and hangings put up to suit the coming season.

CHAPTER X.

DAILY ROUTINE.

Before the breakfast hour, the living-room fire must be lighted, the grate cleaned, and the room aired, swept, and dusted. Breakfast should be a comfortable meal in a cheerful room, where every member of the household meets every other with a pleasant look and greeting. The influence of such a family scene sets the bread-winner off to his work with a heart strengthened to meet the hardships and buffets of the outside world: but no such influence is felt where the close and dirty room, or the ill-prepared, hurried meal drives away any stray scrap of good-temper that may try to find its way among the group.

Where the children are very young, and no servant is kept, the morning work, like all the rest, devolves upon the wife: but as the girls grow up, each should be made responsible for one or two particular duties. It is a bad thing for girls to find everything prepared for them by their mother. Even when a servant is kept, the girls should dust the breakfast room, prepare the breakfast, and wash and dress the younger children. Where the breakfast hour is eight, the servant should be ready for work at half-past six, and the children should get up at that time.

Besides the work stated, a few other things should be done before breakfast—Shoes should be cleaned (if not done overnight) and the hall and steps swept, and washed if they require it; the beds should be thrown open, and bedroom windows opened so as to air the rooms. After the meal is finished, the breakfast things should be packed away neatly (to be washed afterwards) and the breakfast-room put in perfect order. Then, leaving water to heat during her absence, the housewife or the servant goes up-stairs, carrying the slop-pail, a cloth, and a can of hot water. She first sees that all the beds are uncovered and the windows open; then removes all dirty water from the bedrooms, and with the hot water, washes the crockery of each washstand, drying each article carefully with the cloth, which should be kept exclusively to this one use. (Where the washing is confined chiefly to a bath-room, this portion of the daily work will be much lightened.)

The dirty water is then carried down-stairs; and, the water being by this time ready, the breakfast-things are washed and put away.

The kitchen fire is next made up, ready for cooking, and the maid washes her hands, puts on a large clean apron kept expressly for bed making, and carries up fresh water for the bedroom cans or ewers, and a jug of clear filtered water for the water-bottles. These are then filled, and she proceeds to make the beds,—takes up with a short broom any flue that may be under the beds—takes up, and lightly shakes, any small pieces of mat or carpet,—and dusts the bedrooms, leaving everything quite neat and fresh. Then with the short broom she sweeps down the stairs, taking care that no room-doors are open to admit the dust, and that the dust at each step is swept carefully into the dust-pan. Next she dusts the handrail of the stairs and the ledges of the wainscot at the sides. Then she goes in to the drawing-room, and dusts and arranges it; this it will require every day, though, as it is not constantly in use, daily sweeping may not be necessary.

Where the work is done actively and briskly, all this will be finished so as to allow sufficent time for the preparation of the dinner, which is the next duty. When the cooking is fairly started, and needs only a little attention from time to time, preparations may be made for laying the cloth.

Knives should be cleaned, the cruet-stand dusted or polished, salt-cellars filled, and mustard mixed. Punctually, to the moment, dinner should be ready. Want of punctuality with meals is a great source of ill-health and discomfort.

After dinner comes the washing up. The kitchen or living-room fire is made up for the afternoon, so as to need no stirring, the kettle filled and put on the hob, and the room and scullery are made quite clean and tidy. The heavier portion of the day's work is now done, and the housewife enjoys the luxury of a thorough wash and a change of dress. Then comes the preparation of tea; and, when the tea-things are washed and put away, there follows the quiet time of leisure for conversation, reading, or needlework. The wife stitches busily, while the children learn their home-lessons, and the husband gives them scraps of interesting news gathered in his out-door rambles; or, perchance the good man's head sinks down gradually as the pleasant warmth of the fire betrays him into a doze, and the little folks smilingly warn each other that "Father is nodding, and they must be quiet." This too is the time when the good housewife sends or goes out for any article that may be needed for the next day:—a plan that gives her or her servant a little walk in the open air at an hour when she can be spared, and prevents the necessity of going out in the earlier and busier part of the day. At dusk, the bedrooms should be prepared for their occupants; the windows must be closed, blinds drawn down, all dirty water removed, water-bottles and jugs refilled, and bed-clothes turned down. The exact time for doing this will vary, of course, according to time of year.

Then the children are undressed, and slight necessary repairs of buttons and strings are performed on their clothing. The younger members of the household disposed of for the night, the father and mother have their light supper, and find an opportunity for talking over the graver matters in which the young people cannot join.

Supper being removed, firing should be placed ready for use in the morning, and the sitting-room should be left for the night free from any kind of litter that would hinder the morning work.

Cleanliness is next to godliness.

CHAPTER XI.

WEEKLY ROUTINE.

This varies a little, because of the laundry work. It is not good to have washing done every week, except where there is a large family of young children; nor to keep clothes a long time dirty, as they thereby become yellow, and render the air of the house impure. It is a very common and very good plan to have the washing done fortnightly at the beginning of the week. Where this is done, the following would be the weekly routine.

Monday.—The clothes to be sorted, mended, and put to soak; the copper to be filled, the copper-fire laid, and all preparations made.

On this day, too, the drawing-room should receive its weekly cleaning; because it will have been in pretty constant use the day before, when all the family assemble at home. On other days, it will need only dusting and arranging.

Tuesday.—The maid, or one of the elder daughters, must rise earlier than usual, in order to get the fires lighted, the rooms swept, and the rougher portion of the morning's work finished betimes. While this work is going forward, a good supply of water is heating in the copper, so that the washing can be commenced at seven o'clock.

Some other member of the family should take the lighter duties of the morning—dusting the rooms, laying the cloth, and preparing the breakfast, so that the laundry-work, once begun, may not be interrupted. A similar arrangement should be made for clearing the breakfast table and washing up, for attending to the kitchen fire and the cooking, and for setting the beds and bedrooms in order.

Washing is heavy and exhausting work: therefore the person performing it requires a substantial hot dinner; but it is desirable to have only a plain meal, requiring little attention to its preparation.

Time is saved, if one person hangs out the clothes while another goes on with the washing; and the laces and muslins may generally be washed by the elder children, or by the mother. The clothes should all be dried on the same day, if possible. In order to accomplish this, it is sometimes necessary, in unfavourable weather, to dry some things indoors; but it is best, should the day be wet, to defer the washing of flannel and coloured articles till they can be dried out-of-doors. This need not cause serious inconvenience, inasmuch as such articles do not require boiling; while, if they were dried indoors, the flannels would shrink, and the colours would run together.

In the evening, the folding and starching should be done, and the starched linen dried at the fire, damped and folded for ironing.

All the washing apparatus should be cleared away, and the kitchen and scullery left ready for the next day's work.

Wednesday.—The ironing-stove being heated during breakfast-time, the mistress commences the ironing immediately after breakfast, the maid or the elder children doing the housework as quickly as possible, in order to take charge of the rougher portion of the ironing and mangling. The ironing should be finished on the Wednesday; thus the whole process is completed in two days.

Thursday.—The bedrooms should be cleaned. In summer, they should be scrubbed fortnightly, but not all in the same week. In winter, they should be scrubbed only in bright dry weather. The stairs should be thoroughly swept and dusted, and the stairrods rubbed bright. Stair carpets should be taken up, and the stairs washed, once a month.

Friday will be devoted to a thorough cleaning of the dining-room. The plate, or lighter bright articles, may also be cleaned, to lighten the work of the following day.

Saturday.—The cleaning of the hall or passage, the pantry, kitchen and scullery, will be the work of Saturday. Everything will also be arranged for the dinner and other needs of Sunday; pudding or tart made,—vegetables, soup, and anything else that admits of preparation, got ready beforehand; clean linen looked out; and all possible plans made for leaving the next day free from ordinary work and care.

In the week when no washing has to be done, the good housewife will arrange for the fortnightly scrubbing of bedrooms and monthly washing of stairs, the cleaning of bright kitchen utensils, and any extra house-cleaning that may be required only at intervals.

CHAPTER XII.

HALF-YEARLY ROUTINE.

The half-yearly routine of work comprises the cleaning of the house from top to bottom in Spring and Autumn, and preparing it for the coming season by putting up suitable hangings.

The work of the Spring is the more important, because it is the best season for renewing paint and paper-hangings, whitewashing, &c. May is the usual time for beginning this work, because the weather is usually too unsettled before to allow of the necessary removal of curtains and carpets.

Order.—The work should begin at the top of the house, and be carried on down to the bottom, so that

He that cannot do what he would, must do what he can.

every part of every room and passage shall be thoroughly cleansed.

Hangings and Curtains should first be taken down, shaken, brushed, and put away ready for future use. Venetian blinds should be cleaned or repainted, and white roller-blinds washed.

Carpets must be taken up, shaken or beaten, and hung in the air to freshen while the room to which they belong is being cleaned. They must not be so hung that the sun shines on the right side, however, or the colours will fade.

Carpets may require to be cleaned or scoured; and this is the best time for performing such work if necessary. But in any case, they should be examined carefully before they are laid down, that chance stains may be removed and any needful repairs done. It is often possible to re-lay a carpet so that a different portion comes to the part of the room where the stain or wear is greatest; and a good housewife will consider, at cleaning-time, whether it is possible so to increase its durability.

Bedsteads should next be taken to pieces and well dusted. If of wood, particular care is necessary that every joint shall be thoroughly cleaned; if of iron, the removal of the laths will be sufficient.

Bedding.—Bed-hangings should be removed and washed; so should the holland or calico edgings of the mattresses, and the holland casings of the feather beds, if these are used. Blankets and counterpanes should also be washed at this time, if the weather is warm; but unless they can be quickly dried, it is better to leave them till the end of the house-cleaning.

Feather-beds should be kept clean by being taken to pieces occasionally—once in five years, or thereabouts. Chaff beds are commonly used in the country, and are very clean and comfortable, as well as economical, being especially good for children's use;—if those are used, the chaff should be changed once a year.

Rooms.—The object is, to clean every part of every surface of every room. Closets and their contents should be first attended to. Ceilings and walls should be whitewashed, coloured, papered, or painted. When it is not necessary to renew the wall paper, it should be brushed and rubbed with a soft clean cloth. Ceilings should be whitewashed every spring, and rooms re-papered every three years. When the wall-paper is not to be renewed, the walls must be covered with sheets, to protect them from splashes, during the whitewashing.

Painted Surfaces must next be cleaned or re-painted.

Grates should be thoroughly black-leaded, or painted over with the preparation made for the purpose, and known as Brunswick-black.

Floors must next be scrubbed, and stone-work, such as the hearth and window-sills, cleaned.

Windows should then be cleaned, and blinds replaced.

The Furniture should receive its share of attention while the floor is drying. Mattresses, cushions, stuffed chairs and couches should be beaten (in the open air, if possible) with a light cane, and then well brushed with a whisk or soft brush.

Hard-wood furniture will require polishing; painted, varnished or japanned wood must be washed with soap and slightly-warm water; marble must be washed, and stains taken out. In sitting-rooms, chandeliers will require cleaning before the carpets are put down.

Ornaments of glass or china must be carefully washed and as carefully dried and polished. Other methods of cleaning, according to the material, will be required for other light articles of use or decoration.

Pictures must be first well dusted. Then the frames should be cleaned with a dry soft brush (a large common camel-hair brush is very suitable) and the glasses cleaned. If the picture is a heavy one, the hanging-cord may need to be renewed, especially should it hang on an iron nail; since the slight rust caused by the ordinary dampness of the air will in two or three years seriously decay the cord. Neglect of this care often causes damage or destruction to portraits or other pictures, valued for their associations. Besides, the cords, in time, become dusty, black, and unsightly.

The Staircase is to be treated like the other parts of the house;—every nook to be cleansed. The painted or varnished sides and the baluster-rails must be washed and rubbed bright, and the hand-rail polished.

The Autumn cleaning resembles that of the Spring-time; but no whitewashing or painting is required. The winter hangings are put up, and the summer curtains are washed and put away without starching.

Starched articles, laid aside, crack at the folds, and turn yellow.

If any bright steel-work has been used about the grates in the summer-time, and is not needed during the winter, it should be thoroughly greased with melted suet, and packed away in brown paper or baize till again wanted.

Cleaning Fire-grates—The fire-grates of sitting-rooms require to be thoroughly black-leaded once a week, before the fire is lighted, but they should be well brushed each morning also, and all spots should then be removed. Black-leading is one of the dirtiest of household occupations, and gloves of stout leather should always be worn by the person performing it; otherwise the hands become unfit for any finer work, such as waiting at table or sewing.

The hearth-rug is first to be removed, and a piece of coarse canvas laid down in front of the fender to protect the carpet from dust. The ashes are then cleared from the grate and the soot swept from the sides of the chimney with great care, to prevent dust flying about the room; and the fire is laid ready for lighting. The ashes and cinders are next taken up, and removed from the room at once; after which, the box is brought in with the black-leading apparatus, and the steel of the fire-irons cleaned.

The black-lead should be mixed with water to the consistency of thick cream, in a small tin or jar kept for the purpose; it must be applied with a small soft brush to as large a surface of the stove as the arm can conveniently reach at once, and allowed to dry a little; then a dry brush should be vigorously used to clean it off. A third brush should be used to give a finishing polish, and the work may be considered well done when the cleaner's face can be seen reflected from the surface. The bars may be conveniently done next, then the inside of the arch of the fire-place, and lastly the outside.

The fender, if of cast-iron, must be black-leaded; also the pan of the shovel, the "bit" or black end of the poker, and the tips of the tongs. A bronze or japanned fender should not be black-leaded; it will need only dusting with a clean soft brush, but the pan of the fender will of course be treated like all other black iron work.

Care in Use of Black-lead.—The black-lead should not be allowed to get quite dry before the brushing begins, or the work will show streaks. The brushes used must be perfectly dry and free from grease; and great attention must be paid to the management of them, that the marble or other work round the grate may not be smeared, scratched, or rubbed.

Moveable Ashpans are very useful in sitting-rooms. They are shallow pans, made to fit the hearth immediately under the fire, with bars of brass or steel, between which the ashes fall out of sight, so that the hearth is always tidy. When the brass or steel-work of the ash-pan is kept in good order, it is an article that helps to make the fire-side bright and cheerful. It also economises fuel: for the cinders, as they do not fall between the bars with the ashes, can be returned to the fire with the tongs. The necessity of sweeping the hearth, which causes dust to fly about and settle on the curtains, wall-paper, and furniture, is avoided; since ashpans can be carried out of the room, emptied, dusted, and replaced, after the fender, fire-irons, and bars have been dusted.

Cleaning Steel-Work.—Steel fire-irons and bright bars are easily kept at a high polish by being rubbed every day with a soft leather. Spots should be removed by using a little dry rotten-stone with the polishing-leather. If steel has become rusty, a good coating of sweet oil should be laid on it and allowed to remain for two or three days to soften the rust; then, unslaked lime, reduced to a fine powder, must be dusted thickly over it, and the leather vigorously used until the polish is restored. Prevention, however, is better than cure; rust can only seriously affect steel that is not in constant use, and by a little forethought the labour of renewing the bright surface may be avoided.

Sand-paper, bath-brick, and even emery powder, are unsuitablo for cleaning steel, as they scratch the surface, and prevent its taking the proper degree of fine polish.

Well-kept steel-work about the fire-place adds so much to the pleasant, cheerful look of a room (especially when a fire is burning) that it is worth some trouble and care; indeed, few things about a house indicate more surely the degree of comfort to be found in its general arrangements.

To Clean Stone Hearths, Steps or Sills.—Sweep off all ashes or dust; then wash the stone with a flannel and clean cold water. (In winter, out-door stone-work is very liable to become discoloured by exposure to weather; to prevent this, a little soda should be dissolved in the water in which it is washed.) After washing the stone quite clean, rub it with hearthstone; then wring the flannel nearly dry, and rub it over the stone in straight lines, so as to spread the hearthstone smoothly and evenly. A wet flannel would make the work look smeared and streaked.

Should a hearth be greasy, use boiling water with a little soda, and scour the stained part with a piece of sandstone (hard hearthstone will do) until the marks disappear.

It is sometimes found convenient to black-lead the hearth of a sitting-room; in this case, it should be prepared for the black-lead by varnishing with Brunswick black.

In hearthstoning, it is necessary carefully to avoid smearing or splashing the surrounding wood or iron-work. Any chance marks of the kind should be neatly removed from baluster-rails, stoves, etc., with a clean duster.

Loso heart, lose all.

CHAPTER XIII.

DETAILS OF HOUSEWORK.

Fire-lighting.—Much of the household comfort of the early part of the day will depend on the manner in which this duty is done. Like most other duties, it requires, for its proper performance, foresight and intelligent attention to a general principle.

Preparation.—The fuel should be made ready overnight. A few of the half-burnt coals should be lifted off the fire and laid on the hob or the hearth, of course with due avoidance of danger to wood-work. The wood for kindling should, with like care, be placed to dry.

Laying the Fire.—In the morning, the grate must be thoroughly cleared of ashes, and a few cinders laid at the bottom, with abundant space between for the air to pass through. On these, the crumpled paper or shavings must be lightly laid, and on this again the sticks of wood, placed across and across, with space for the passage of air, as before. Next above the wood should be placed the half-burnt coal, in pieces about the size of an egg; and, finally, fresh coal on the top; care being still taken to avoid packing the fuel so closely as to keep out the air. A fire thus made should be burning with a clear bright centre, and a good flame at the top, ten minutes after the match is applied to it.

Another Way.—Should it be desirable to let the fire burn slowly, a nearly opposite course should be pursued. The bottom of the grate should be covered with a piece of sheet-iron (cardboard or brown paper will do, if the plan is required only occasionally); then the fresh coal should be laid, pretty closely, so as to half-fill the grate; then the half-burnt fuel, wood, and shavings, with just enough coal on the top to keep the lighter material in its place. A fire thus made will last a long time, if not disturbed; it economises fuel, and makes no dirt; but it has a cheerless look, and gives less heat to the room than one on the former plan. It is suitable for a sitting-room or bed-room only, and is of no use whatever for cooking.

Principle of Management.—The principle to be borne in mind in the lighting and management of a fire is, that to produce combustion or burning two things are needed—fuel and air; or rather the carbon contained in fuel and the oxygen contained in air.

Carbon is abundant in wood, in peat, and in coal (which is composed of closely-compressed leaves and stems in a fossil state); it burns briskly just in proportion as it finds oxygen to combine with it. Hence, when we wish to increase the heat and brightness of the fire, we lift the fuel, to allow a free passage to the air, that it may reach every part, and give its supply of oxygen wherever it is wanted. When, on the other hand, we wish to keep down the heat, and make the fire burn slowly, we press the fire closely together so that very little air can penetrate to the heart of the fire, and cover the top with small coal and ashes, which lie very close and hinder the upward draught. Those who have to leave a fire burning during a long absence should place a close-fitting sheet of iron under the bottom of the grate, so that the only entrance for air is through the bars in front.

If this principle is borne in mind, it will be seen how unwise it is when lighting a fire, to lay the paper flat at the bottom, to place cold fresh coal between the bars, or throw on a great quantity of fuel towards the front of the grate. A well-made fire, intended for immediate use, should slope from front to back, and be free from blackness in the lower part. When fresh coal is needed, the fire should first be drawn forward towards the bars, and the new supply should be thrown lightly on towards the back.

Pieces of coal placed between the bars disfigure the stove with coal-tar and smoke, and render a kitchen fire unfit for broiling and roasting.

To Sweep a Sitting-room.—Throw open the windows at the top and bottom; lightly shake the window-curtains and pin them up; remove the table-cover and hearth-rug, shake them in the open air, and leave them there, if the weather be fine, until the sweeping is done. Throw a dusting-sheet over the couch, and wheel it into the middle of the room along with any other easily-moved articles of furniture. After cleaning the stove and making ready the fire, strew on the carpet some slightly-damp tea-leaves or damp grass; then, with a short-handled carpet-brush, begin to sweep at the side of the room furthest from the fire, paying particular attention to the corners and edges, and taking the dust up into the dust-pan at each stroke to avoid drawing it over all the rest of the carpet. One of the first things to be studied in sweeping is, to raise little dust. The strokes should be firm but short, because long strokes whisk the dust into the air, when it settles on the walls and pictures; and a short hand-brush is better than a long-handled carpet-broom, partly because it is better calculated to make such strokes, partly because it reaches the corners better, and partly because it leaves one hand at liberty to hold the dust-pan.

After the sides of the room are swept, replace the furniture, and sweep the middle, working always towards the door. Take away the dust-pan at once, and leave the room for a time, that the dust raised during the sweeping may settle. (The hall or staircase may be swept in this interval.)

Small things make base men proud.

After this the dusting-sheet must be wrapped together and removed for shaking, and the furniture dusted and restored to its place. The sweeping and dusting of a sitting-room need not occupy more than forty minutes.

It must not be forgotten that the room in daily use should be aired, swept, and dusted for the day, before breakfast, in order that it may be clean and neat during the whole of the time it is required by the family.

To Dust Furniture, etc.—Bear in mind that dusting is not simply wiping dust from large surfaces, such as the seats of chairs and tops of tables. It is necessary to examine every part of every article, that spots and finger-marks may be removed; and to rub every surface, whether level or upright, that the polish may be daily freshened. Each small article must be lifted that the table or sideboard on which it stands may be properly rubbed:—wiping round such things is a most slovenly habit, which soon reveals itself, and does not really save time or trouble in the end.

Window frames, edges of wainscot and doors, and the frames of doors (where draughts deposit a great deal of dust) must receive attention at the same time as the furniture.

The dusting finished, replace the hearth-rug and table-cover, and arrange the curtains.

A soft linen duster will be required for the larger furniture and the ledges; an old silk handkerchief for delicate ornaments, glasses, and gilt frames; for carved wood-work, if French polished, a soft dusting brush—if hand polished, a hard brush; and for the cushions of chairs and couches, an ordinary hand-whisk or clothes-brush. The softer dusting-brush should be used for ledges and corners, but must be followed by a firm quick rub with the duster.

He lives long who lives well.

To Clean Mats and Floor-cloth.—Remove the mats and shake or beat them in the open air; then look over them carefully and pick off any bits of cotton or other litter, which these articles very readily gather. Sweep the floor-cloth quite free from dust; and with a clean soft flannel, slightly-warm water, and soap, first wash any paint-work at the sides which the oil-cloth does not cover. The flannel must not be too wet, or the water will run under the edges of the floor-cloth and soak into the canvas of which its foundation is composed, causing the painted surface to crack and peel off. The same precaution must of course be observed in washing the floor-cloth itself, which should next be done in exactly the same manner. Careful drying is necessary for this, as for all other painted surfaces; and the finishing brightness is given with a little milk, applied on a clean cloth, or by polishing with a dry soft rubber. This done, the mats should be relaid. Oil-cloth should be washed once a week unless the passage is very much used, when it will need it oftener. It should be swept and rubbed every morning:—this can be most conveniently done while the dust is settling in the sitting-room.

Brass-work.—Handles of bells, knockers, door-plates, and key-hole plates—will need daily attention. If connected with the street-door, they should be cleaned before the steps and hall, that there may be little treading over these after they are washed.

In cleaning these articles, care is needed to avoid rubbing and smearing the surrounding paint and wood-work. A piece of stout card-board, with a hole cut in it of the size of the brass plate, should be placed over it, to keep the rubber from touching the door. Brass handles of chamber-doors should be polished at each half-yearly cleaning, or they become black, and are then very hard to clean. Brass is kept clean by means of rotten-stone, moistened with sweet oil. The mixture is rubbed on with a piece of flannel, and a dry leather used to polish the work.

To Wash China.—The quickest and most effectual way of washing china is to have two bowls of water as hot as the hand can bear:—should it be hotter, it is likely to crack delicate china; if too cold, it does not cleanse properly, and fails to produce the gloss seen on well-washed earthenware. In the first water the cups are cleared from sugar, and tea or coffee grounds; in the second they are rinsed; so that they are quite clean before they are wiped. This prevents the tea-cloth becoming very dirty. The china must be dried with a soft linen cloth and rubbed until it shines, care being taken to wipe thoroughly round the rims and handles, and to draw the cloth through the last-named part. Cups and saucers should be washed first: afterwards those articles which may be greasy, such as the milk-jug and plates. Jugs which have an uneven or ornamented surface will require to be cleaned with a brush and a little soap.

For Washing Glass, only warm water must be used with a little soda dissolved in it. The articles should be rinsed in cold water, rubbed dry with a clean linen glass-cloth, and polished with a leather. These cloths must be kept apart from the tea-cloths, and used for the one purpose exclusively.

Bed-making.—This work is most properly and conveniently performed after the breakfast-things have been cleared, and the kitchen fire made up for cooking. During breakfast-time, the beds and bed-clothes should be lying exposed to the current of air from the open bedroom windows, that they may be freshened, and freed from the perspiration they have imbibed from the body during the night. The occupant of a

The coat does not make the gentleman.

bedroom should, before leaving it, open the windows both at the top and the bottom, and throw the clothes to the foot of the bed.

When the dirty water is taken away, and the washstand put in order, the bedclothes should be taken separately and thrown over two chairs to air for half an hour. Then the hands should be washed, and a large clean apron, kept for the purpose, should be put on, that the bedclothes may not be soiled by daily contact with the dress of the bed-maker. The feather bed must then be well shaken and beaten with the hands (that the feathers may not gather into lumps) and finally turned over. The wool or flock mattress must also be turned. The straw palliasse need not be turned oftener than once a week, when it should be brushed with a hard brush, and the framework of the bedstead dusted.

The bed being replaced, must be made smooth and level, but without any handling that may make it hard. Then the under blanket and under sheet are to be smoothly spread and neatly tucked between the bed and the upper mattress—not too tightly, or they harden the bed.

The under sheet must be right side uppermost. The bolster and pillows are next placed, the open ends of the pillow-cases to the middle of the bed; then the upper sheet is put on, right side downwards, and the remaining bed-clothes.—In arranging these, care must be taken to leave enough at the head to turn over, and to tuck in the upper sheet and blankets neatly at the sides and foot.—The counterpane must be spread so that the sides hang equally down over the vallance, the centre pattern being exactly in the middle of the bed. The hand and arm are next pressed gently but firmly against the bottom of the pillows, in order that their form may be distinctly seen. Should there be curtains, they should be folded neatly on the pillows.

In making beds, the sheets must always be put in exactly the same way. The mark of the under sheet should be at the right-hand corner of the foot of the bed, and the mark of the upper one at the left-hand corner, the seams and hems being turned towards the lower and upper blankets respectively. This prevents the part that was at the foot one day being turned to the head the next.

In the evening, the beds are prepared for their occupants by letting down the curtains, and folding the counterpane half-way down the pillow, the blankets over it, and the top sheet over all.

Cleaning and Dusting Bedrooms.—Bedrooms require to be scrubbed at least once a month in summer, and to be thoroughly swept and dusted once a week; but they also need a little attention every day. Every morning, after the beds are made, the loose flue and dust should be swept with a hand-brush into the dust-pan, and the furniture should be lightly rubbed. This operation need not occupy more than five minutes for each room.

On the day of the weekly cleaning, the window and bed-curtains and the vallances round the bed must be shaken, lightly folded, and pinned up to keep them from dust. The dusting-sheet must then be thrown over the bed, and on it placed (unless very heavy) the dressing-glass, face downwards; the smaller ornaments of the table and mantel-piece may also be laid on it for safety. Then the toilet-covers must be taken off, shaken, and folded; the washstand-top and toilet-ware washed and well dried; and the crockery packed together and placed in another room or on the landing outside, to prevent accidental breakage. The carpets should next be rolled up and taken to the yard to be shaken and aired, and the smaller furniture placed in the middle of the room or on the landing. A short-handled broom and dust-pan should be used, and the sweeping performed gently, so that the dry dust may not fly about. (See "*Sweeping a Sitting-room*.") Damp tea-leaves strewn on a floor smear the boards, unless the leaves are quite fresh and only very slightly moist; damp grass is less likely to do this.

After the sweeping, the boards may be lightly wiped over with a clean coarse cloth, very slightly damp; this will take up any dry flue or feathers that may remain; but great care must be taken to use the cloth lightly, or the same effect will be produced as by wet tea-leaves.

The bedrooms being swept, the carpets may be shaken while the dust is settling; the stairs may also be brushed and dusted during this time. The carpets must then be laid down, the furniture dusted and arranged, the hangings unpinned, and everything restored to perfect order.

If one bedroom of the number is to be scrubbed, that one should be first attended to, that it may dry while the others are being swept and re-arranged; and the carpets of that particular room should, for the same reason, be re-laid last. If the weather should be wet, the scrubbing should be deferred to a more favourable opportunity.

Cleaning Stairs.—For sweeping stairs, two brushes should be used,—a soft one for the painted sides and a rather stiff one for the carpet. The sides should also be dusted with a soft cloth, and particular attention must be paid to the corners. (See "*Daily Routine*.")

When stairs are scrubbed, the scouring-brush must not be used to the painted part; and the front, or "riser" of each step must receive its due share of

We never know the worth of water till the well is dry.

cleaning. Stair-carpet should be so re-laid that the part worn by the edge of the step is not again placed in the same position; and if (owing to the construction of the staircase), tacks are unavoidably used, they should be so driven as to hold the carpet firmly, but not so as to bury the tack-head in the wool; otherwise they will tear the pile when next the carpet is taken up.

CHAPTER XIV.

DETAILS OF HOUSEWORK (continued).

Preparations for Dinner.—Salt-cellars should be daily rubbed and re-filled, the salt being made fine by drying two pieces and rubbing them together over a sheet of clean paper. The cruet-stand and castors must be rubbed, and replenished with vinegar, pepper, cayenne-pepper, salad-oil, and freshly-mixed mustard. Knives, forks, spoons, ladles, water-bottles, glasses, and bread-tray or trencher should be dusted, and the bottles filled with filtered water. All these articles, with the bread and bread-knife, should then be carried on a tray into the dining-room and placed on a side-table or a stand provided for the purpose.

Laying the Cloth.—If the dining-table has a polished top, lay a thick baize over it, to prevent the hot dishes from marking it. Then put on the cloth, right side up, with the centre fold running exactly along the middle of the table, and the edges hanging over equally at the sides and ends. Place the salt-cellars at each corner, (or, if only two are used, at the two diagonally opposite corners) and two table-spoons near each. Next put the water-bottles at the corners, opposite the salts, if there are only two. At the foot, or master's end, of the table, place the carving-knife

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What may be done at any time will be done at no time.

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and fork, with the sharpening-steel on the left, and the fish-slice (if required) on the right. The gravy-spoon lies crosswise, its handle near the point of the carving-knife, its bowl towards the fork; the soup-ladle goes at the opposite end of the table. To each person then lay a knife, fork, dessert-fork, and spoon, tumbler, table-napkin, and piece of bread. The bread should be thick (the round cutting into four pieces) and must be placed on the left side, with the napkin, the glasses being placed on the right. Wherever hot dishes or piles of hot plates are to stand, place a table-mat.

On the side-board or side-table arrange the loaf, some spare knives, forks, and spoons, cold plates for cheese, salad, and any other articles likely to be wanted in the course of the meal. Then set a chair for each person.

The plates and dishes must be quite hot; the most carefully-cooked dinner will otherwise be spoiled.

When dinner is ready, if soup or fish forms part of the meal, place it at the mistress's end, or top of the table, with the hot plates immediately in front. After the soup is removed, bring in the meat, and place it before the carver at the foot, with the hot meat-plates. Vegetables are placed at the sides. The covers must be allowed to remain on the dishes until the family is seated and grace is said.

Where the family is very small, or no servant is kept, these arrangements will necessarily be modified; but in the humblest home, care and thought should be taken to place every article at hand that is likely to be wanted during the dinner, and to have everything connected with the meal, bright, clean, and neatly arranged.

Clearing the Dinner Table.—First remove the carving-knife and fork and lay them in the knife-tray.

Next take the joint, vegetables, or pudding, and remove the plates one by one. As each plate is taken to the side-board, quietly take the knife, fork, and spoon from it, laying the knife in one tray, and the fork and spoon in another. Remove the cruet-stand to its proper place, and collect on a tray the tumblers, water-bottles, salt-cellars, and any other remaining articles. Should any pieces of bread be left, they must be lifted, with a clean fork, into the bread-tray. Then brush the crumbs from the cloth on to a waiter, with a stiff clean crumb-brush, and fold up the tablecloth so as to preserve the creases already made, without producing any fresh ones. The cloth is finally placed in the side-board drawer, unless (a far preferable plan) it can be kept pressed when not in use.

Washing Dinner-things.—The things removed from the dinner-table require to be washed in a certain order; much time may therefore be saved by placing together, ready to the hand, those articles that are to be washed together—glasses, knives, plated forks and spoons, dish-covers, plates and meat-dishes, each in a separate group.

First, remove the meat to a clean dish:—if left standing in the gravy, it becomes sodden and soft when cold, besides being unsightly to place on the table:—the gravy from the dish, together with any that may be left in the sauce-tureens, is next to be poured off into a jar and preserved, in a cool place, to be used in re-cooking cold meat or in making soup. Next, clear the plates of scraps and place them in a pan of hot water at once, before anything has time to dry and harden on them. Next, wipe the knives, first with a piece of soft paper (which should be burnt afterwards) and then with a proper knife-cloth, till all grease is removed; they are properly cleaned after the dishes are cleared. Knives should not be washed; hot water softens the steel of the blades, and loosens the handles.

The inside and edges of the dish-covers should next be washed with hot water, and dried well. The outside must be polished with a leather.

The forks and spoons are next washed, a little soda being used in the hot water to remove grease. In drying the forks, carefully rub the prongs, and push the cloth between them, that no particle of grease may be left; and after the plates are washed the forks, spoons, etc., may receive a rub with a dry soft cloth or wash-leather.

The more delicate things being now cleared away, pour some hot water into the pan where the plates have been soaking. Most people use water as hot as the hand can bear it, and rub the plates with a coarse hempen or linen cloth; but a better plan is to have the water nearly boiling, and instead of the cloth to use a dish-mop, which prevents the necessity of plunging the hands into the water, and cleans the articles more effectually. A dish-mop may be bought for fourpence in most towns: but the making of one is a very simple matter; it is a bunch of hempen twine or coarse linen thread, firmly fastened to a wooden handle about ten inches long; and it is kept in order, as a dish-cloth is, by well washing it with soap, rinsing, and hanging up to dry in the open air.

Cleanse thoroughly each plate and dish, inside and out, in the hot water; then plunge it into a pan of cold rinsing-water, into which the tap is kept running, to float off into the sink any grease that may cling to the plate, and rise to the top of the water; then lift it from the rinsing-pan and place it in the plate-rack to drain. When required for use, every plate should be rubbed with a clean cloth.

Washing Saucepans.—When the plates and dishes are finished, the saucepans claim attention. These require a little forethought. As each is done with during the cooking of the dinner, it should be filled with water, to prevent the scraps and grease from hardening on the sides. The best thing for cleaning saucepans is a bunch of birch twigs about twelve inches long, tied together round the middle.

With the birch twigs and plenty of hot water, well scrub the inside of the saucepan; then wash it with the dish-cloth or mop, rinse it with cold water, wipe it with a coarse towel, and stand it for a few minutes on the stove to ensure its perfect dryness. A saucepan that has been put away damp contracts in a few hours a sour smell and flavour, which is communicated to the food next cooked in it, and renders it both disgusting and unwholesome.

Other articles used in cooking, such as the dripping-pan and frying-pan, must be cleansed in the same manner as dishes, but will require the same careful wiping and drying as saucepans.

Cleaning the Sink, etc.—During the plate washing process, particles of refuse will have been carried into the sink; these must be gathered up and thrown behind the fire, as, if allowed to run down the pipe, they would choke it, and cause much trouble. Clean hot water is required, with which the pans that have been used in washing up should themselves be well washed; this water with some soda will take off the first surface-dirt from the sink-stone. Then in a second water (always hot, and containing soda) the dish cloth and mop are thoroughly cleansed, and with a hard brush, kept for the purpose, the sink is well scrubbed; a final supply of hot water cleanses the brush; and the sink is then well sluiced and left as dry as possible.

All through these operations it must be borne in mind that the water cannot be too plentiful or too hot; and that the object is to remove every trace of grease, not only from the articles washed, but from the implements (pans, cloths, brushes and so on) used in the process.

Cleaning the Kitchen after Dinner.—The cooking having been done in the kitchen, this room will need to be put in order. It must first be swept. Then the cooking-table or dresser will require to be scoured, in order to keep it quite white. Other wooden articles—the bread-trencher, rolling-pin, pie-board, and chopping-board—may also need scrubbing. For this purpose use plenty of hot water, a little soda, soap, and white sand, a scrubbing-brush, a clean flannel, and a coarse cloth for drying. The articles must be scrubbed with soap and sand, washed clean, and dried. If the floor needs scouring, the water and implements may be kept in readiness to do it as soon as the fire-place is made tidy—the next thing to be done.

Make up the kitchen fire for the afternoon by drawing forward any vegetable refuse that may have been thrown to the back to dry during the cooking; throw on the cinders and, on the top, some small coal, and then leave the fire undisturbed for several hours. Fill the boiler (if it is not self-filling), clean the stove and hearth, polish the fender and fire-irons, fill the kettle, and stand it beside the fire, that it may be boiling when wanted for tea. Then dust the furniture, and leave everything neat.

CHAPTER XV.

DETAILS OF HOUSEWORK (continued).

Making Tea.—The following rules must be observed in tea-making:—the water must be soft and boiling, the tea-pot hot, the tea of good quality and sufficient quantity, and time enough must be given it to infuse or mash.

The water, if hard, may be softened by boiling, or by putting into the kettle a little carbonate of soda;—a gallon of water will require about as much soda as would lie on a sixpence. The tea-pot should be heated by a little boiling water; this must be poured away before the tea is put in. The old rule "A tea-spoonful for each person, and one for the tea-pot" is a sufficient guide as to quantity; and ten minutes should be allowed for the tea to infuse. As a metal tea-pot is seriously injured by being placed near the fire, the use of the tea-cosy is strongly recommended for keeping it hot. The cosy is a helmet-shaped cover, of wool-work or thickly padded cloth, with a layer of felt, (the best known non-conductor of heat) between the outer material and the lining; it is made to slip over the teapot, which should stand on a mat of the same material. It is very easily made, and may be an ornament to the table; while by its use, the tea-pot may be kept hot for hours at a distance from the fire.

Many people pour a cupful of water on the tea at first, and fill up the pot when about to serve the tea; others fill the teapot at once. The first plan is generally considered the better one.

In serving the tea, care must be taken to keep the pot replenished with boiling water;—if once it is drained out, the succeeding "cups" will be weak and tasteless.

Laying Tea-things.—For this, as for all meals, a linen table-cloth should be laid. Taking tea on the ordinary table-cover is an untidy habit, soiling an expensive cloth, which cannot be washed, and making the meal cheerless. The tea-tray must be dusted, and the tea-pot, nicely polished, placed on its mat in the centre of the tray. Around one side range the cups and saucers so that they shall stand nearest to the person who presides, the handles of the cups being turned towards her right hand. In each saucer place a spoon, with the same care in the direction of the handle. The slop-basin, milk-jug, and sugar-basin with sugar-tongs, are to be arranged on the further side of the tray, near the tea-pot. Then carry the tray into the tea-room and place it at the end of the table; and lay a small plate and knife for each person.

It is now generally the custom to cut the bread-and-butter at table, and this is a good plan, since it enables all to follow their own taste as to thickness of bread and quantity of butter. The loaf is placed near the centre of the table on its wooden trencher, with the bread-knife beside it; near at hand is the butter in its cooler, with a small knife. Preserves, biscuits, cake, and so on, must be arranged as conveniently as possible, each with a spoon or knife for serving it. Dry toast is placed in a proper toast-rack; buttered toast is best kept hot and light by serving it on a hot-water plate, or by standing it over a basin containing boiling water.

The supply of water required for filling up the tea-pot is provided from a bright kettle, taken in with the tea-tray and set on the hob, or a covered jug placed on the tray within easy reach of the tea-maker's hand.

Tea being the meal which belongs especially to that part of the day when work is done, it should be made as enjoyable as possible. For this end, everything connected with it should be bright, clean, and cheerful. The mistress of the house should always make the tea and coffee; much comfort depends on this work, and to secure it, care is necessary in many little points in which servants are likely to fail.

The foot at rest meets nothing.

Dry Toast should be thin and crisp. It should be made just before it is needed, and served in the toast-rack in half slices, the crust being removed. The use of the rack is to keep the slices separate: if allowed to lie near each other when warm they become tough.

Buttered Toast is thicker than dry. It should be made before a quick fire, and buttered at once with a light hand. The slices may be piled up and cut into two or four pieces according to their size; the crust may be removed or allowed to remain, as desired. It should be prepared just before it is needed, and kept hot till eaten.

Making Coffee.—The rich aromatic flavour, so highly esteemed in this beverage, is contained in a highly volatile oil which may be seen saturating the paper wherein freshly-ground coffee has been wrapped. This flavour, unless preserved by means of a close tin or glass vessel, will fly off and pervade any soft substance lying near it. As it is strongest and richest when the berries are freshly roasted and ground, coffee should be purchased in small quantities, and be ground only as it is wanted for immediate use. The aroma is drawn out by dry heat, and by infusion in boiling water, though destroyed or driven off by boiling; for this reason, the coffee-pot should be quite dry and hot when the coffee is put into it.

Two spoonfuls of coffee are required for each person, and two "for the pot;" the quantity being just twice that prescribed for good tea. Having poured the boiling water over it, place the pot on the fire and watch it, that it may be removed just before it reaches boiling point. It must on no account be allowed to boil. Lift the pot off the fire; pour a little of the coffee into a cup and return it to the pot, to prevent the spout becoming choked; let it stand ten minutes to settle, and pour it into the bright coffee-pot, previously heated, for table.

Boiling milk should always be served with coffee.

It is well for the mistress of the house (where servants are kept,) to make the coffee at the table, in a percolator or French coffee-pot; these are now made of block tin, and are not more expensive than the old-fashioned coffee-pot. The percolator is in two parts, an upper and a lower; the upper portion fits on to the lower, and has a floor perforated with very small holes, which serves as a strainer. The coffee-pot having been heated, the coffee is placed on this floor, and pressed down closely and evenly with a round piece of tin, made for the purpose with an upright handle. The requisite quantity of boiling water is then gently poured on it, the lid is closed, and the whole set for a few minutes beside the fire, till the water has had time to percolate through the coffee and the strainer into the lower compartment. The upper part is now to be removed, and the lid placed on the lower part (which it also fits): the infusion will be found quite ready and clear, all particles of coffee having been kept back by the strainer. During the time that the percolation is going on, the spout of the coffee-pot must be kept closed with the cap attached for the purpose.

Cleaning Plate.—Silver or plated articles require great care in cleaning. Silver being a soft metal, its surface is easily scratched and spoiled. Electro-plated articles are made of some inexpensive metal coated with silver, and this coating is rubbed off by rough usage, leaving the coarser material visible in patches.

The cleanliness and beauty of silver have caused it to be highly esteemed for table use, but its cost renders it a luxury, and its value gives care and trouble lest it should be lost or stolen. Plated goods have almost superseded those of the solid metal, since they look as well, are as clean in use, and are of comparatively little intrinsic worth. This last quality also brings them within the reach of most classes of people, and their use forms one of the cheap refinements of modern life. But like most articles of refinement, if they are not kept in good order, they only look pretentious and slovenly.

To clean silver or plated goods, first wash them thoroughly with soap, hot water and soda, drying them carefully with a fine cloth. Then take some whiting which has been sifted through coarse muslin; wet it slightly, and rub it over each article with a piece of flannel; and when it is nearly dry, rub it off with a leather. If there is any chased or embossed work, it must be cleaned with a proper plate-brush. A second leather is required, to give the final polish, which should leave a perfectly bright surface, free from scratches, and from any particle of the whiting used in cleaning. Drying cloth, flannel, leathers, and brushes must be clean and as soft as can be obtained.

The plate-powders sometimes sold should be avoided; they often contain quicksilver, which gives a very fine polish for a time, but destroys the surface.

Cleaning Knives and Forks.—If the household does not possess a knife-machine (which is now a cheap article, and lightens this branch of work considerably) the knives must be cleaned on a board covered tightly with buff-leather. Rub some dry Bath-brick on this, and then rub the knives vigorously along it in straight lines, from end to end, regulating the pressure so as to avoid turning up the edge of the knife and fraying the leather. A thoroughly well-cleaned knife is always found to have become sharpened in the cleaning. The back of the knife will need rubbing after the sides of the blade are done.

For steel forks, a leather must be used, and a piece of hard wood, about six inches long and one broad, wedge-shaped at one end, will be found useful for pushing the leather between the prongs and into the curves. Be careful, however, not to push so heavily as to bend or spread the prongs. Sometimes one end of a thong of leather is nailed to the knife-board; the other end is held in the left hand, while with the right, the fork is rubbed up and down it, the leather being passed between the prongs.

Both knives and forks will need to be carefully wiped after cleaning, to free them from brick-dust; and this should be done at once, or the brick will eat into the metal and spoil the surface.

Scrubbing.—Scrubbing effectually cleanses the surface of wood. It is especially adapted for the soft wood which usually forms the flooring of English houses, and which, by reason of its rough surface and porous nature, readily gathers dust and becomes impregnated with any poison vapours that may be near it.

On the Continent, scrubbing is not usually adopted as a means of cleansing, since the floors are of hard wood, polished so as to be impervious to dust and vapour.

Time for such Work.—Scrubbing should always be done in the early part of the day, in order that the floor may have time to dry before evening:—this precaution is of the utmost necessity in bed-rooms. In winter, rooms should be scrubbed less frequently than in summer, and only in dry weather; otherwise their atmosphere is rendered damp, causing colds, croup, rheumatism, and many other diseases. Kitchen floors require scrubbing three times a week; bed-rooms (and sitting-rooms, if in constant use), once a month when the weather will allow of their drying quickly,—drawing and dining-rooms, at the half-yearly cleaning.

Patience and time run through the longest day.

Implements etc. required.—A bucket of clean hot water, some soap and white sand, a flannel, a hard scrubbing brush, or cocoa-fibre scrubber, an old skewer, and a coarse hempen cloth for drying. Soft soap is the most cleansing, but it is expensive and has a very strong smell. The cocoa-fibre scrubber is formed of one half of the large outside husk of the cocoa-nut, the edges of the hollow in which the nut lies being cut away to give a plane surface. The cost of this is very small, and it is the most effectual scrubber known. It may also be used for scrubbing stone.

Soda, though it cleanses, makes boards yellow. White sand, soap, plenty of water frequently changed, hard rubbing and thorough drying will make them white and beautiful.

To Scrub a Room.—Take the carpet, hearth-rug and table-cover out of doors to be shaken; shake and fold the latter carefully at once. Remove the fender and fire-irons to the kitchen, the small furniture and ornaments into another room if possible, and the remaining furniture into the middle of the floor, throwing over it the dust-sheet. Shake and pin up the curtains; sprinkle the floor with damp tea-leaves, and sweep it gently; arrange the fire; and clean the grate.

Commence to scrub at the side of the room farthest from the door. First wash as large a surface as the arm can conveniently reach, using plenty of water; then sprinkle a little sand on the wetted part, rub soap on the brush, and scrub vigorously in the direction of the grain of the wood, keeping the boards very wet, and taking the dirt from corners with the skewer. Wash, with the flannel and plenty of water, the piece scrubbed; wash the flannel well, to free it from the dirt it should have taken up from the boards, and wring it tightly. With the nearly-dry flannel, remove as much water from the floor as possible, and dry with the coarse cloth. Then pass on to another portion; and take care to let the part washed end at the edge of a board, or the floor, when dry, is likely to show marks where the portions meet. Having gone nearly round the sides of the room, change the water, remove the furniture, and scour the middle of the floor, ending with the part next the door. The room must be swept when it becomes dry, to remove the sand before the carpet is re-laid.

Painted Wood-work.—Doors, window-frame, and shutters, wainscot, skirting boards, the sides of stairs and passages, (not covered by oil-cloth or carpet,) stair-rails, and Venetian blinds are generally painted, and should be washed at the half-yearly cleaning, that every part of the house may be made fresh. But this would be insufficient for the doors of closets, pantries, and kitchens, which are very liable to be soiled with finger-marks by children and young servants. All such marks should be washed off at once, for nothing is more unsightly; the household should be trained to carefulness in this matter.

To Clean Paint.—Warm water, soap, a clean soft flannel, and two soft drying cloths are necessary; also a soft brush for crevices, ledges, and window frames. Soda must on no account be used; it destroys the surface of the paint at once.

Dust or sweep the painted surface to be cleaned, and wash as much as the arm can reach with a well-soaped flannel. Wash and wring the flannel, and with it rub the paint again and again till it is quite clean. Dry the surface with one of the soft cloths, and rub it till bright with the other, being careful to clean and dry the corners thoroughly. If paint is left damp, it retains the marks of the washing, and loses its brightness.

The eye of the mistress does more work than both her hands.

Cleaning Carpets.—When a room is to be thoroughly cleaned, the carpet should be removed carefully, that no dust may be raised in the house. It should be thrown over a strong line in the open air, and beaten on both sides with a stout cane or supple stick, till dust ceases to fly from it; it is most effectually done by holding one corner with the left hand, and beating with the right. Then it must be well brushed with a short stout carpet-broom and drawn several times over a clean grass-plot, or rubbed with a damp cloth, to remove all flue and freshen the colours. It must be allowed to hang some hours in the air, in order to render it quite fresh and pure;—unless this is done, carpets acquire a musty unwholesome smell, which is very disagreeable and unhealthy in a house. Grease-spots may be removed, and the colours restored where there are faded patches by the use of raw potato, scraped very fine, and mixed with a little water;—the mixture must be laid on the spots, and allowed to remain for three or four hours.

To Scour a Carpet.—The carpet having been well beaten, and brushed with a hard carpet-broom in the open air, should be stretched tightly on a clean floor and nailed down. Then take clean water, to which bullock's gall has been added in the proportion of a pint to two gallons, and with a hard clothes-brush and soap scour in the same way as when cleaning boards, but do not make the carpet too wet. Gradually brush off the soap-lather, and then apply clear water, with the same care, to avoid undue wetness; then rub dry with a coarse cloth. Brussels carpet requires scouring only on one side; Kidderminster or Scotch must be allowed to lie till dry, then turned, nailed down again, and receive the same treatment on the other side. The object of nailing it down is to prevent shrinking and curling at the edges.

Wealth is not his that has it but his that enjoys it.

Bullock's gall possesses the cleansing properties of soda, but is preferable to it, because it helps to restore the colours which soda destroys. It has a very disagreeable smell, which can most quickly be dispersed by exposure. After drying, therefore, the carpet should be hung for a day or two over a line in the open air.—(See *Washing Woollen Dresses.*)

Cleaning Windows.—The cheerfulness of a room depends in a great degree on the brightness of the window-panes; and the careless housewife proclaims her character at once when these are neglected. Externally, too, they give a favourable impression;—it has been said that bright windows are to a house what bright eyes are to a face; they give a look of frank honesty that surely redeems the plainest from the charge of ugliness.

Windows should be dusted every other day, well rubbed once a week, and thoroughly cleaned once a fortnight. The most convenient time for cleaning is during the first two or three days of the week when no washing is in hand, after the rougher part of the daily routine is finished. It is a kind of work that can be done without disturbing the rooms to any extent, and may therefore be left, at the weekly cleaning, to a time when it is less likely to throw the housework late, and so interfere with the comfort of the male portion of the household. Besides, it is not possible to do it well at every time. A window should never be cleaned when the sun is shining on it;—no amount of rubbing will make it bright; and in frosty weather, the mere touch of the hand will cause the glass to crack.

Two pieces of wash-leather are requisite, one for washing the glass, the other for polishing:—the second must be kept dry and soft. The washing-leather should be dipped in clean water, and two or three panes washed; then it should be rinsed and wrung tightly, and these few panes rubbed dry, with particular attention to the corners. The polishing-leather should then be briskly applied, with the same care. Then a second portion of the window should be cleaned, and so on till the whole is done. Linen or cotton dusters are unsuitable for window-rubbers, because they leave pieces of down clinging to the glass.

To Clean Looking Glasses.—Dust the frame with a soft feather-brush, and wipe the glass free from dust. Wash the glass with a sponge dipped in spirits of wine (or unsweetened gin) and water, and rub it quite dry with a very soft cloth; then lightly dust it over with powder-blue, tied in a muslin bag; rub this over with a soft cloth, and polish with a leather or an old silk handkerchief. The powder-blue causes a glass to look intensely clear and bright; but care is of course necessary to keep the colour from touching the frame.

To Clean Lamp Globes.—These should be dusted every day, and washed at least fortnightly;—oftener, if they are in constant use. Dirty lamp-glasses waste light and destroy the cheerfulness of the room when it is lighted up for the evening. Take warm water, in which a little soda has been dissolved, and with a piece of clean flannel wash the glasses till all spots are removed. Rinse them in clear cold water, rub them dry with a clean soft cloth, and polish with a leather.

Lacquered and Bronzed Metal is generally used for chandeliers, lamps, curtain-poles, cornices and bands, finger-plates and lock-furniture. Plain soap-and-water is the best thing for cleaning such goods. The water must not be too hot; the rubber must be soft; and care must be taken to clean the crevices (a very soft brush may be used for this purpose) and to dry them thoroughly.

Wealth, like want, ruins many.

To Clean French-polished Furniture.—If any part of the furniture is greasy or very dirty, wash it with slightly-warm water, soap, and flannel; but take care to wring the flannel well before applying it, or the wetness will destroy the polish. Rub quite dry with a soft cloth. Then apply, on a piece of fine cloth, a little boiled linseed oil, and rub the article vigorously in the direction of the grain of the wood, until the polish is satisfactory.

Mahogany Furniture not French-polished should be freed from grease by washing with weak beer —not with soap or water. It is to be brightened by rubbing with bees'-wax and turpentine, or with boiled linseed oil, which is one of the best things known for keeping hard-wood furniture in order.

CHAPTER XVI.

CLOTHING.

Uses of Clothing.—The lower animals are provided by Nature with a covering suitable to the climate in which they live. Man is endowed with intellect, which enables him to choose his clothing from the animal or vegetable world, and to shape and weave it according to circumstances; he can adapt it to his work, and to the temperature of the country and the season. Thus, unlike the lower creatures, he is able to exist in any climate.

It is an error to suppose that clothing *makes* us warm. It may *keep* us warm, by preventing the escape of the bodily heat derived from food; and in our country, this is its chief use. The body requires to be kept at a temperature of 98°, whether the abode be within the ice-bound polar regions, or under the scorching rays of the tropical sun. When its heat falls below this, chilliness, shivering, and loss of vital force result; when it rises above, great heat and feverishness ensue.

The first use of clothing is to maintain this degree of heat, in all climates and all seasons. When, therefore. the heat of the atmosphere is below 98°, clothing must be chosen which will retain the animal heat. Some materials are bad conductors of heat; that is, they will not readily allow it to pass through them. Fur, wool, feathers, and down, have this property in a high degree, while felt is absolutely a non-conductor, permitting none to pass; these are therefore suitable for very cold weather. When the temperature is above 98°, clothing is necessary, to shield the body from it, and to carry off some of the animal heat. Linen is the best material for this, being a good conductor; and next to linen, cotton and silk.

The second use of clothing is as an aid to civilization. If little clothing is worn in a cold climate, much time is wasted in the mere getting of food. The body is uncomfortable unless its proper temperature is kept up, and the half-naked savage learns by experience that large quantities of food and violent exercise bring about the desired result. The Indian of the North American plains spends his whole life in hunting for the large amount of food necessary to maintain heat and bodily energy: the heat made is not retained or economised as it would be if he wore suitable clothing, and he has, consequently, no energy or force for brain-work. His mind is almost inactive, his brain is the least-developed portion of his system, and his life is but a little removed from that of the animals around him.

Qualities on which its Usefulness Depends.—The warmth of clothing depends, first, on the heat-conducting power of the material employed; secondly, Wide will wear but narrow will tear.

on the size of the fibres which are twisted together to make the threads of the fabric; thirdly, on the closeness with which these threads are woven together; and lastly, on the colour. Dark colours absorb heat-rays and throw them back very little; white, light colours, and bright surfaces (such as those of fine alpaca or *glacé* silks) reflect them, absorbing very little. A person clad in black feels the heat of the sun, much more than one dressed in white; and the black dress will become unbearably hot to the hand at a distance from the fire that leaves the white material almost unchanged in this respect.

Clothing should always combine lightness with warmth. The exertion necessary to carry about a great weight of clothing causes waste of power, tiring the body, and consuming the energy and strength that ought to be expended in work.

The dress should allow free action of the muscles, and be adapted to the necessary movements of the body. Fatal diseases of the internal organs are often caused by tight clothing; the action of the skin, which is so essential to health, and is stimulated by the slight friction of loose garments, is stopped; circulation in the outer skin is impeded, to the decrease of warmth; and lastly, the lungs—the engines that, in combination with the heart, keep all the machinery of the body working—are crushed, and impeded in their movements.

Clothing as an Adornment.—Apart from its use as a fit covering for the body, clothing is a means of pleasure and adornment; indeed, it is the too great consideration of this point that renders "dress" a snare and a source of wrong. Every woman should be dressed as well as her means will allow; and it is quite natural that she should wish to wear what is pretty and becoming. But care is necessary, to

Want of wit is worse than want of gear.

choose what will longest remain pretty; and it must be remembered that the dress, to be truly becoming, must suit not only the face and figure, but the occupation and the pocket, of the wearer.

Richness of dress, in former times, was the sign of high social position, and of the refinement belonging to high rank and good breeding. It is not so in our day, when a large and wealthy middle-class exists; but to the fact that it was so, we may ascribe the love of display in clothing—one of the chief characteristics of people who have amassed money rapidly, without acquiring this refinement. In all grades of society are found those, who endeavour to appear as if they belonged to a rank higher than their own, and dress is the means of pretence most generally used. The tradesman's wife, with ample means but uncultivated taste, over-dresses herself as a well-bred lady never would do; or the servant spends her earnings in a vain attempt to imitate her mistress, with a false idea that a cheap imitation of a good material will produce as good an effect as the original.

Much of the evil (for love of display is a crying evil) may be traced to this cause, and to the abundance of cheap tempting-looking but nearly worthless material made in imitation of more costly and durable goods. Much also is to be ascribed to the want of intercourse between classes, and of the personal influence of good and wise women among their sisters lower in the social scale. In large towns, where women's labour is in demand, thousands of young women work in shops and factories, with no bond between them and their employers—to whom, indeed, they are unknown:—no interest is taken in their welfare, and no opportunity is given them of education into the simple truthfulness and real refinement of true nobility. It is a great misfortune that so many women aim only at being lady-like, when they might be ladies. Perfect honesty and truth are the first qualities of a lady; pretension, in any form, is simply dishonesty, and the assertion of untruth.

In most parts of Europe, women dress in a manner suitable to their work and class, and their costume is very often pretty and picturesque. In England this custom is unpopular. The dress of a peasant in Scotland is of better material, and is more comfortable and pretty than that of an Englishwoman of the same rank. There is something honest and substantial about the short woollen skirt, the clean frilled cap, and the plaid that passes over the head and forms the out-door costume of the Scotch peasant woman, with which the long draggled gown, the flimsy shawl, and the bonnet with its miserable remnants of flowers or feathers, so often seen in England, would compare very unfavourably.

The head-covering, especially, of the poorer women in the large towns of England and Ireland, has become an object of ridicule. In France, even in the capital (which rules the rest of the continent in matters of dress) the poorest women are seen at church or at market in dainty white caps with frilled borders; while the younger women, by a certain careless arrangement of a handkerchief with a point falling on the forehead, make for themselves a head-dress which, for simple elegance and grace, is not surpassed by the most costly constructions worn by the rich.

CHAPTER XVII.

MATERIALS FOR CLOTHING.

Rules for Purchasing.—Every woman who has to purchase clothing for herself or her household should have, first, a thorough knowledge of the composition, durability, and price of the ordinary dress materials; and, secondly, definite ideas respecting the materials and colours suitable to the season, and to those for whom she provides. As far as her means will allow she should buy at fixed periods. Unless there is some plan as to time of purchase, kind and quality of material, and choice of pattern and colour, a woman is often tempted into buying so-called bargains, which seldom serve their intended purpose, or to try experiments in dress, which generally prove expensive as well as unsatisfactory.

Quality of Material.—One of the best rules regarding choice of clothing is to buy the best quality of the material chosen, for this always proves the cheapest. Thus, if a good silk dress cannot be afforded, it is most unwise to purchase a cheap flimsy one, though it may look well when new; the beauty will very soon wear off, and it will look tawdry. The cost of the poor silk will give far more satisfactory results if expended on a fine woollen material, such as French merino, which will look handsomer and better, besides being durable. When clothing is of good quality, that of the older members of the family can be cut down and re-made for the younger.

Silk and Woollen Fabrics.—An ordinary good black silk costs from five to six shillings per yard; and, as it is not very wide, twelve yards are required for a plain dress. French merino is twice the width of silk; and a good quality, all wool and finely woven, costs from three shillings to three-and-sixpence per yard. Seven yards will make a plain dress. A light colour may be chosen for summer wear; and when it has answered its purpose, it may be dyed a dark rich colour for winter.

All dress materials that are entirely of wool wear well and dye readily; they are cheaper also than mixed fabrics, because of their durability, and give more satisfaction and pleasure to the wearer, because they look well to the last. Thus, Silk Rep, which is made by weaving silk over cords of cotton, is very handsome when new, but becomes shabby long before the substance is worn out, and does not take dye well. Good Woollen Rep wears well, and can be washed or dyed; its cost is about the same as that of French merino, eight yards being required for a dress. Rep is especially suitable for elderly people, on account of its substantial rich appearance. Serge, when composed entirely of wool, is valuable for winter garments. Its price is about two-and-sixpence per yard. The quantity for a dress is about eight yards; more or less will be required according to the width of the material which varies with the price.

Mixed Materials are those made by interweaving cotton with wool or silk, or wool with silk only. "Lustres" and many other fancy goods are of this kind. These are not durable, and therefore expensive in the end; they shrink or shrivel and lose their gloss with the slightest dampness, are utterly spoiled by a shower of rain, and cannot be washed or dyed; they should therefore never be purchased. The only mixed fabrics that can economically be used are alpaca and winsey. Alpaca is made of the hair of the alpaca goat, woven with sufficient cotton to give it strength; pure alpaca would tear very easily. It is cool and light for summer use, and wears very clean; if of good quality it is very durable, and when washed looks as good as when new. It costs from two-and-sixpence to three shillings per yard, and eight yards of material at this price will be needed for a dress. Winsey is a mixture of stout woollen and cotton, very serviceable for winter wear. The better the quality the less the proportion of cotton, and the greater the durability of the fabric. The price of a good quality is three shillings or three and sixpence per yard; and a dress will take eight yards. Like alpaca, a good Aberdeen winsey will wash, and afterwards look nearly as well as if new.

Washing Materials.—These are cotton prints, cords, marcellas, and muslins; and holland, which is a kind of linen. They are very good for summer wear. Their price is small; but they should not be worn unless they can be washed often, and the expense of washing adds considerably to the first cost. Nothing, however, looks more fresh, dainty or seasonable than a clean muslin or marcella dress of delicate pattern; and they possess this advantage, that weather cannot injure them. Good qualities keep clean longer than cheap ones, and thus allow saving in washing.

Printed washing cottons are an invention of modern times. At the beginning of the present century a cotton dress was an article of luxury, which lost all its beauty by washing. Small neat patterns and delicate colours should always be chosen in these fabrics; nothing but experience, however, will be any guide to the colours that will wash best;—black and mauve (not the old-fashioned lilac) stand at the head of the list of hues to be avoided, as sure to fail in washing. Printed cottons cost about eightpence per yard; cambrics (which are just a finer kind of cotton cloth), cotton cords and marcellas, from a shilling to one and sixpence. Brown holland is composed entirely of linen. The un-dressed kind is cool and pretty for summer wear, and much more durable than cotton, especially where the wearer is exposed to the rays of the sun, or to the sea air; but its first cost is greater. Its price is from ten to fifteen pence per yard. Of any of these materials, eight yards will be sufficient for a dress.

Men's Clothing.—The clothing of men is more expensive than that of women need be;—the woollen cloth used in their dress will become rusty and shabby in a very short time, unless of the best quality. A good wife will always understand that, while a woman may by means of contrivance and labour be well dressed in very inexpensive materials, if daintily neat and in good taste, there can be no such contrivance as regards her husband's clothing; though his appearance may be improved by her care in mending, and by the spotless appearance of his linen. A woman, however expensively dressed, looks shabby at once if her husband is forced to wear a threadbare coat. Men's clothing is usually made of broad-cloth, for light wear, a suit of which costs not less than six pounds; or of rougher and coarser woollen fabric, such as tweed, melton, frieze, and pilot-cloth, suitable for hard wear, and very durable if of good quality. Inferior goods of the latter kinds are made of shoddy (old woollen rags torn to shreds and re-spun,) and soon tear or fall into holes.

Boy's Clothings.—The winter clothing of boys can generally be contrived from that of their father. For summer-time, suits of cotton, holland, or striped linen ticking are cool, inexpensive, easily made, and easily washed.

Winter Stockings for the household should be home made. Knitted woollen stockings, by promoting circulation, are an excellent preventive of chilblains.

Under-Clothing.—Welsh (or blue-tinted) flannel for ordinary wear may be purchased for one and fourpence per yard; Saxony (or cream-coloured) flannel, costs from one-and-eightpence to two-and-sixpence, They are sad rents that come wi' tears.

The latter, on account of its softness, is generally preferred for wearing next to the skin, and is the only kind suitable for infants' garments.

The practice of wearing flannel next the skin is highly beneficial in our variable climate, especially for old or delicate persons, children, and those whose occupations expose them to sudden change of temperature. Being a bad conductor of heat, it keeps the surface of the body at an unvarying temperature; while it readily allows the escape of perspiration, and by its slight roughness stimulates the action of the skin and thus promotes warmth. Chills to the skin checks perspiration, and cause inflammation of the internal organs; such chills and their consequent evils, are best averted by the use of flannel.

Stout calico, suitable for under-clothing, costs from sixpence to eightpence per yard. Long-cloth, the finest and most carefully-finished calico, costs from eleven to fourteen pence; it is suitable for fine under-clothing and infants' night-dresses. For under-garments, these materials have almost entirely superseded linen; not only because of their cheapness, but because cotton is a worse conductor of heat, and is therefore warmer for winter use, while in summer it is more comfortable, because it allows the perspiration to escape, while linen absorbs it. Brilliant muslin is a fine cotton fabric, woven in raised spots or stripes of a satiny appearance: it is used for infants' day-gowns, and looks very pretty when nicely ironed. Its price is about one-and-fourpence per yard. Jaconet muslin is used for infants' long or short dresses. It is glazed when new, and without pattern. Its cost is about the same as that of brilliant muslin. Nansook muslin is a very fine, unglazed variety, of exquisite softness. It is commonly used for infants' robes, and costs from one-and-eightpence to two shillings per yard.

For want of a steek a shoe may be tint.

Before the introduction of steam weaving, linen was the chief material used for under-clothing, as it still is in many continental countries. It is a good conductor of heat, and absorbs perspiration very readily. For the latter reason, it should not be worn next the skin by persons who perspire much; it becomes saturated with moisture, which, in drying, chills the skin, the heat of the body being expended in converting the moisture into steam. It is unsuitable for wear in a humid climate, but feels fresher than cotton in warm weather, when first applied to the skin. The coarser kind of linen, fit for under-garments, costs about one-and-sixpence per yard; the finer, for shirting, from that price to two shillings. Lawn is very fine linen, extremely soft, and preferable to any other material to be worn next the skin by infants; its price is from two to three shillings per yard.

Brown holland is glazed unbleached linen, chiefly used for children's pinafores; an unglazed variety is frequently used for boys. It costs from ninepence to a shilling per yard. Diaper is linen woven in a pattern, and highly bleached and glazed: it is one of the prettiest and best materials for children's pinafores. It is imitated in cotton, and glazed so that inexperienced purchasers may easily be deceived. Nothing under one-and-sixpence per yard is likely to be composed entirely of linen.

In comparing the expense of linen and cotton garments it must be borne in mind that the former is the more durable substance; but the general opinion is that cotton, from its much lower price, is cheaper, even in the long run.

Method of Judging Material.—Calico, print and muslin should be free from lime or stiffening. If a corner of the fabric is rubbed, the "dress" will fall out, and the true character of it be seen. A good material needs no coating of lime to make it appear good. The threads of calico should also be examined: they should be fine, even, closely woven, and free from knots.

Woollen goods may be tested by fraying out a little piece at the corners, and again fraying the threads thus found, both warp and woof. Any mixture of cotton can then be detected by its smooth flat look. Shoddy, though all wool, is easily distinguished from good material by the readiness with which the threads break.

The fibres of flax are tough and glossy, in the latter point almost resembling silk. Evenness of weaving should be a guide in the purchase of linen.

Silk should be firm, strong, and heavy; but the latter quality is sometimes falsely given to it in the manufacture by the introduction of steel into the black dye; this soon wears out, leaving the material flimsy and limp. A good black silk has a handsome coloured selvage; that without it should be avoided.

Stockings of poor quality, being very imperfectly shaped, fit badly, causing blisters and corns; besides, they are of poor material, and need much expenditure of time and labour in mending. Winter stockings may always be knitted at home, and will then be handsome, durable and easily mended. A pair of good woven cotton stockings, of ordinary size, and well-shaped, will cost from one-and-ninepence to two shillings; woven merino, from two shillings to two-and-sixpence. Men's socks cost from one-and-sixpence to two shillings. All woven stockings should have the heels and feet run before they are worn at all: this will save much labour in darning.

Boots and Shoes form a serious item of expenditure in a household; but unless these are good, the appearance of the whole dress is destroyed. Sewed boots are most economical, though they cost more, at first, than those that are pegged. The soles of the latter are very likely to break away from the upper leather, especially after getting thoroughly wet. Children's boots should be of stout leather, rather than of fine kid, and should be fastened with laces. Elastic sides require constant expenditure to keep them tidy, and buttons are always being broken off and lost at the most inconvenient times.

The foot should not be crushed into the boot. That it is so, very generally, with women and children, is shown by the fact that the boot, as is commonly said, "gets out of shape" (that is, it stretches somewhat to the natural form of the foot) after being worn a little while. It would not do so if it fitted properly: the fault is generally that the sole of the boot is much narrower than the sole of the foot. Tight boots cause corns, and make the feet cold by stopping the circulation.

Coverings for the feet deserve great consideration, since, if the feet are allowed to get damp, colds, the foundation of the most fatal diseases, are sure to follow.

CHAPTER XVIII.

ECONOMY AND TASTE IN DRESS.

Economy in Quantities of Material,—It is a good plan for two members of a family to have garments off the same piece of material: this applies to men's clothing as well as women's. The best portion of the two make up one good garment afterwards; and even when new, the fabric can be cut to better advantage for two articles than for one. Sufficient should be bought to allow of the easy fit of the garment and of a good margin to turn in for sewing; a dress or coat that fits tightly soon becomes shabby by straining and fraying at the seams. An extra piece should be allowed for mending or in case of accident; and if the material should be afterwards dyed, this piece should be dyed with it, and will then serve to replace those portions (such as the body of a dress) which shrink, in the process, too much to be re-made. Good allowance should also be made for turning-in at the top of skirts, especially for children.

Some kinds of woollen materials make good under-skirts after serving their purpose as dresses; this should be remembered at the time of purchase. But if a material is too faded or shabby for an outer garment, for the same reason it should not be taken for under wear, unless it can be renovated by washing, dyeing, or re-making. Cotton and all mixed fabrics, except alpaca and winsey, are unsuitable for under-skirts.

Economy in Choice of Dress.—Those who wish to dress well at small cost must avoid extremes in style, pattern, colour, and trimming. When fashion is closely followed, either the dress soon looks antiquated, bearing its date upon it, or it needs constant renewal or alteration. Some people spend the greater portion of their life in contriving to dress fashionably on small means:—this is a culpable waste of the time that should be devoted to higher objects.

Money is more wisely spent on good material than on expensive or profuse trimming, which becomes conspicuous in a short time, and if removed leaves marks on the dress.

Economy may be practised in the choice of colour. Bright colours are not durable for constant wear, and the eye wearies of them, sooner than of black or quiet tints. Coloured silks especially, though their first cost is less than that of black, are more expensive in the end;—they are unsuitable for frequent wear, and soon look old-fashioned in pattern and colour. Black silks may, by varying the accessories of collar, cuffs, or ornaments, be made to suit any circumstances where careful dressing is required.

It is not economical to buy garments ready-made. Such articles look well when new, but the work is often very poor, and the material generally inferior.

Economy in Choice of Accessories.—For head-coverings, hats are more economical than bonnets; they take less trimming, wear longer, and can be easily freshened by slight alterations; their rather smart appearance, however, renders them unfit for middle-aged or elderly persons. Straw is the best material, and black or brown the best colour; grey fades quickly, and white soon become soiled or sunburnt.

Bonnets require to be changed or altered at least once a year, or they become conspicuous from their antiquated look, which is as much to be avoided as the striking appearance produced by extreme fashion. Much is saved by a woman who can make and alter her own. Black bonnets are the most inexpensive wear; as, by varying the trimming very slightly, they can be made to suit any dress. Velvet, straw, and lace are the best materials:—they should always be of good quality. Whatever be the material, the head-covering should be light, and not too warm, and it should not impede the circulation by pressure; if these points are not attended to, head-ache and depression will result.

Collars and cuffs of linen are easily cut out and made at home, especially when they can be stitched round with a sewing machine. They should be lined with stout calico, to make them firm, and to retain the starch. For a set of half-a-dozen collars and pairs of cuffs, a yard and a-half of linen at two shillings would be sufficient.

Lace collars and sleeves are not expensive for occasional wear, if of good material, made at home, and carefully washed; but if ready-made, their cost removes them beyond the reach of those who wish to practise economy. A little clear muslin embroidery or Brussels net, edged with Valenciennes or Maltese lace, will suffice for a dainty set; and these materials can be washed without injury. Light embroidery suitable for the purpose can be obtained for about tenpence a yard; lace, from ten to fifteen pence.

Muslin frills are a very pretty addition to the dress when properly starched and ironed. They soften the hard outlines of the dress in the same way as lace, and are not so expensive; but they should be exquisitely fine.

TASTE IN DRESS.

Neatness in Details.—A woman must be well dressed whose garments are neat, clean, in good repair, and without pretension. The effect of the handsomest outer clothing is marred when it is worn in conjunction with untidy skirts or boots, gloves with holes, or dirty collars or cuffs. These minor details receive the least attention from some, yet they are among the first essentials of tasteful dress. Good well-fitting boots, neat collar and cuffs, and a fine handkerchief, make the dress look dainty at once, however coarse the material; provided that it is well-made, that its colours agree with each other and with the complexion of the wearer, and that it is suitable to her work, her age, and her figure.

Suitability to Age and Figure.—Tall and elderly persons should wear thick materials and dark rich colours; thin fabrics, such as muslin, make the figure look angular, and light colours increase the appearance of height. Flounces and tucks break the length of the skirt, and increase its apparent breadth; they are suitable, therefore, for tall people; and to be avoided by those of short stature, who require as much unbroken sweep as possible from the waist to the feet. Large patterns should never be worn by persons of short figure: indeed, they are generally to be avoided. Young people should dress simply, and wear little ornament; their own freshness and brightness is the best adornment to their dress, while massive or over-abundant decoration is at variance with the activity of youth. Elderly people, on the contrary, should dress as handsomely and substantially as possible; because such a style of costume befits the gravity of character proper to their age.

Suitability to Season and Occupation.—The clothing should vary with the season, the weather, and the work to be done. During exercise, less is required than during inactivity; and it is necessary that the dress should not impede the movements of the body when at work. The material, as well as the make, of the dress should be suitable to the occupation. A bathing-woman is as well dressed in her suit of coarse blue flannel as a duchess in her rich handsome robes; because in each case the dress is adapted to the occupation of the wearer.

Colour.—As a matter of taste, the colour of the dress should suit the complexion; that is, it should permit the wearer to be a more important and attractive object than the dress. As a rule, black or neutral tints (grey, olive, very dark blue, or green) should form the groundwork; and a dash of bright colour should be worn in the form of trimming or ornament to redeem it from lack of cheerfulness. Only one such colour looks well, and it is generally best placed about the neck. If a strong, bright colour forms the base

Everybody's business is nobody's business.

of the costume, it should be toned down by ornaments of black in some rich material, such as satin or velvet.

Black may be relieved by a line of rich scarlet or rose colour in winter, by the colder blue or more delicate pink in summer. Only very dark persons can wear amber or yellow ornaments, even on black—the only groundwork on which it can be worn at all. With grey, almost any colour harmonises:—scarlet, rose, blue, green, or pink. With neutral greens, scarlet, rose, or a brighter green will look well. Brown is in itself a rich warm colour, but it may be relieved by a rich red or blue. Purple is one of the richest colours; with it may be worn a line of scarlet or rose. Any brighter hue will require subduing with rich black, rather than relieving with strong colour.

Flowers, Feathers, and Ribbons, are ornamental, only when they are very good. Artificial flowers are beautiful, only when they are really works of art, closely resembling the exquisite natural beauties they are intended to represent. Nothing can be more utterly unlike Nature than the coarse-coloured calico petals of cheap flowers. A bow of bright ribbon serves the purpose of ornament far more effectively than such pretentious failures.

Feathers are soft, rich, flowing, and therefore beautiful ornaments; but they are not essentials of dress, and are expensive, though very durable (with fair usage). Cheap imitations are made of pieces and cuttings, which lack all the good qualities of the reality; they are hard in outline, straggling, and scanty, altogether conveying the idea of miserable poverty, or pretension bordering on the ridiculous.

Poor qualities of ribbon are open to the same objection. The ornamental qualities of ribbon depend on the lustre of the silk and the richness of the colours; neither of these can be obtained when the fabric contains cotton. It is of no use as an ornament, therefore, unless very good.

Lace is an article of luxury, and by reason of its softness, lightness, and delicacy, is one of the most beautiful refinements of dress. Among the most egregious violations of good taste in the present day must be reckoned the use of coarse imitations of this dainty art-work. The wearers of such can have no idea of the beauty of the real material. Lace can be very well dispensed with, and unless good, should never be worn at all. Cotton-lace frays at the edges and looks ragged when washed; it is expensive, without serving its intended purpose.

Jewellery is intended for ornament only; the brooch for fastening the collar is the only article of the kind that is of real use; and it should correspond with the rest of the dress. Jewellery is suitable as ornament only for the middle-aged or elderly; and much of it on any one, out of doors or during the day, is in bad taste. It should be real, if worn at all. A brooch of silver, pebble, jet, or ivory, which is exactly what it professes to be, is infinitely better, and probably more really artistic in workmanship, than one of cheap metal washed over with gold and set with pieces of glass, which the ignorant may (possibly, but not probably) take for gems. The opportunity of seeing real jewels, afforded by Industrial Exhibitions in the large towns, should do much to cultivate taste in this respect;—it is want of education, especially in the perception of what is really beautiful, that leads people into the error of wearing sham jewellery, or indeed any imitation of ornament.

Rings are suitable only for the most dainty and well-shaped fingers. On coarse, large, or (especially) dirty hands, they simply call attention to the state of the hand, which is therefore much better without them. In any case, they are permissible only with rich dress, and should not be worn during the morning. The same rules apply to bracelets, which encumber the wrists.

Ear-rings, though so generally worn, are relics of barbarism, to which we are reconciled only by custom. The idea of piercing the living flesh, in order to insert an ornament, is most repulsive. A beautifully-shaped ear is a more exquisite ornament than the jewel intended to adorn it,—too exquisite to be pierced; and a badly-formed one should not be obtruded on general notice by being decked with gems.

CHAPTER XIX.

ECONOMICAL MANAGEMENT OF CLOTHING.

Quantity of Underclothing.—Each member of a household should possess a set of underclothing; that is, a certain number of each kind of garment in constant wear. This number need not be very large; one article is more likely to be lost from a large set than from a small one, and a large set, worn evenly, is likely to go to pieces all at once, without sufficient warning to afford time to replace it. It is better to have one small set in use, and one in reserve, ready to replace the first as it wears out. The stock should be systematically kept up, by the needlework of the mother and girls; but the new garments should be stored, till wanted, without washing. After once being washed in the ordinary way, cotton or linen fabrics are gradually made tender by the action of the soda; and a garment so washed, even if unworn, will be found weaker in fibre than one of the same age that has been stored away in the rough.

A fool's haste is no speed.

Mending.—The whole set, while in wear, must be mended as often as may be necessary, and in such a way as to look as little patched as possible. Thus, when a shirt is out at the elbows, it is better to half sleeve it, than to put a piece over the holes;—the substitution of half a breadth in a dress is better than darning or patching a part which has been injured by accident. The aim in mending should be to "make old clothes look almost as well as new." With good shirts, the aim can be nearly realised, by putting new fronts and sleeves. Time and clothing are saved by mending garments directly they need it. A small rent or hole is generally increased in the washing, by catching, and tearing farther; therefore everything should be examined when the clothes are sorted for washing, and such damages should be properly mended, or, if serious, drawn together to be properly mended when the garment is clean. Those things which require much repairing should be only rough-dried after washing.

Patching should be done with geometrical exactness,—evenly, to a thread,—and, as far as possible, the patch should end in one of the original seams. Thus if the worn or injured part is near a seam, that seam should be ripped open, and the new piece so inserted that its edge will form one side of the seam when it is re-sewn. The selvage of the patch should run in the same direction as the selvage of the garment, or it will not be flat and fit in with the rest. It should be of the same texture as the article to which it is applied, and if with a pattern, it must be so contrived as to match exactly into the corresponding part of the pattern of the material mended. Darning underclothing is a waste of time; it is far better to take out the injured portion and replace it. Stockings cannot be mended until after they are washed;

Gossiping and lying go hand-in-hand.

—they should be darned with material of the same kind and colour as that of which they are composed, or they look unsightly. Darning should lie quite flat and smooth, and one darn should never be made over another, or the stocking will be rough, and cause blisters on the foot. Knitted stockings save much time in mending; they wear much longer than those that are woven; and when they become worn the feet can be cut off and re-knitted,—a process by which they are rendered equal to new.

Even Wearing.—Each article of clothing that has been washed should be placed at the bottom of pile or set to which it belongs; if they are put on the top, the same article gets used again and again, and the set is worn unevenly.

CHAPTER XIX

CLOTHING (continued).

Folding and Storing.—The endurance and neat appearance of clothing are both much enhanced when it is put away in good order. Garments, when taken off, require to be brushed or shaken, and folded or hung away out of the dust. Creases spoil their appearance; for this reason, the folding must be performed with care and skill, and the folded garments must not be packed closely. Hanging is generally preferable to folding for outer clothing; but this must be carefully done, or the garments fall into long creases by their own weight. Silk dresses should not be folded. They should be spread out and wiped before they are hung away, and should be hung with the wrong side out:—indeed, this last rule applies to nearly all dresses and outer garments. Cotton, muslin, and other starched garments must be folded every time they are taken off; if hung, they lose their freshness and stiffness. Woollen dresses, when put away for the summer season, should have the skirt taken from the body, and the gathers or plaits undone, that they may lie quite even and flat when folded; they should be well brushed (or washed, if necessary) and then pressed or kept under a weight. Packing in a well-filled and closely-shut chest answers the latter purpose. During the summer, it is advisable occasionally to hang such articles in the open air, and to examine them to make sure that they are not being moth-eaten.

Better do well than say well.

Protection from Moth.—The best way to prevent injury from moths, is to wrap each article closely in strong brown paper, or stout holland, which these insects cannot eat through. This is the plan adopted by furriers to preserve their stock during the summer, and it may be equally well applied to silk, velvet, or feathers—any of which are liable to attack from moths. Black goods, especially if recently dyed, are particularly subject to injury from this cause, and will need more than ordinary care.

The practice of keeping woollen dresses or shawls under the mattresses during summer is neither cleanly nor wholesome, since all bedding imbibes perspiration from those sleeping on it. It interferes also, to some extent, with the turning of the mattress; and its only advantage seems to be that the articles are daily in sight, and therefore likely to be aired occasionally.

Summer dresses, when put away for the winter season, must be well washed to remove all the starch (which, if left in the fabric, would rot it) thoroughly rinsed, and simply folded, not ironed.

When it is desirable, either for storing or repairing, to wash woollen garments, such as dresses or men's light summer suits, the gathers, plaits and hems should be undone, and the braid taken off the bottom of the skirts. The dust should then be thoroughly brushed out of the material. Into a tub containing about four gallons of clean soft hot water, a pint of ox-gall should be poured; and the garment should be well moved up and down in this, but not rubbed except where there are greasy spots. Then it must be rinsed in plenty of clean cold water, containing a little salt, which will fix the colour. The material must be very lightly squeezed,—not wrung, or it will become streaked and full of creases; and it must be dried very rapidly in the open air. A dry breezy day should always be

He must stoop who has a low door.

chosen for washing coloured woollens. When dry, the article should be carefully folded and mangled; if left for some time under a heavy weight the appearance is much improved. Particular care must be taken to dry woollen goods thoroughly before putting them away.

Ox-gall can be procured from the butcher. Twopennyworth of liquid ammonia from the druggist's will answer the same purpose, and will leave no unpleasant smell.

Woollen dresses look almost like new if they are quite taken to pieces when washed, since the seams and cording are then quite fresh. Such a dress should also have a fresh lining and binding round the bottom of the skirt; it is quite worth the trouble.

Economy of Labour.—In keeping up the stock of wearing apparel of a household it should be remembered that elaborate trimmings are expensive, even when the needlework is all done at home. They are not only unnecessary, but they cause loss of time, that should be applied to higher purposes, and by creating much extra labour, overwork the mistress to the injury of her health, and consequent inconvenience of every member of the family. The keeping up of a good stock of plain clothing is as much as can be done by an industrious woman with a number of children. Taste and ornament are good things, but they must not involve the expenditure of a great portion of the life.

CHAPTER XX.

WASHING.

Intelligence Necessary.—The durability of clothing depends greatly on the way in which it is washed; therefore those who have the washing to do should understand the nature of the substances they have to deal with and of the fabrics they have to cleanse; otherwise, irremediable damage may be done, and valuable property destroyed.

Frequency.—Clothes should not be allowed to get very dirty, for this necessitates much hard rubbing, or even brushing, or the use of strong bleaching powders, which rot the material. Neither should they lie long dirty; for, being impregnated with the waste matter and perspiration thrown off by the action of the skin, they render the air of the house impure, and themselves become very yellow, causing great labour in washing. The washing of a family should, as a rule, if done at home, be done fortnightly, to allow sufficient opportunity for keeping the house in order; the alternate week gives time for this.

Consideration of Household Comfort.—This work may be made a source of great inconvenience to all in the house. "Washing-day" is dreaded in many families by the husband and children as a day of sloppiness, steam, and soap-suds;—a day when meals are uncomfortable, and the whole routine of the household is overturned. In most cases, this could be avoided. Where the wash-house is outside the house, or well shut off from it, a little care would keep all the operations out of sight; and method, quickness, forethought in preparation, and an early start in the morning, would accomplish the task before the time when the labour of the male portion of the household is finished. Except in special cases, the actual washing should not pass beyond the one day, but if the appointed day should prove wet, it is necessary to leave the white garments lying in clean cold water until the next day, when they should be wrung out and dried. Flannels and coloured garments should not be washed in wet weather, as they require to be hung in the open air directly they are rinsed, and dried as quickly as possible, to prevent the flannel from shrinking and the colours from "running." Drying clothes at the fire renders the atmosphere of the house damp, and is likely to produce croup among the children, rheumatism among older people, coughs and colds to all. The practice also involves a great deal of labour, and the clothes are not sweetened and freshened as by exposure to the free air.

Economy of Time.—Much time is saved by previously sorting the articles, so that each kind can be washed, boiled, and rinsed in due order and proper rotation. Two persons can perform the work in far less than half the time that one would require, since one prepares and clears off for the other. Besides the saving of time, the second person effects a saving of risk to health: any one who is washing necessarily gets heated, and is exposed to great danger from chill by going, when in that state, into the open air to hang the clothes to dry. Whether with one washer or two, the quickness of the process will materially depend on the supply of hot water. The copper should be heated by seven in the morning, at latest, and then care and forethought will keep up a plentiful supply. The clothes-line, too, should be ready by the time the first set is washed.

Use of Machines.—Many implements have of late years been invented to lessen labour and save time in the process of washing, as in other kinds of work. Any machine, the object of which is to save labour or strength, is worthy of consideration; and where it is really useful, is worth some self-denial for its purchase.

The object of the washing machine is to cleanse the clothes by moving them about in plenty of water containing soap, soda, or some other detergent. The

A false report travels fast.

best machine is the one that effects this most thoroughly with the least expenditure of personal strength, and without tearing the articles. On the Continent, the same object is secured, though at the cost of more labour, by washing and beating the clothes in springs or rivers; and in the North of England by pounding them in a barrel-shaped tub with a heavy wooden instrument, or twisting and dashing them about, in the same kind of tub, with a long-handled implement terminating in five rounded feet or pegs. By the latter plan, the clothes are likely to be torn; by the former, they are worn in beating; and all three are very laborious occupations. Without some contrivance, however, the work must be done by the hands and arms, which is more laborious still, especially when heavy articles are to be washed. The machine is very useful after each article of clothing has been once washed, and seams, collars, wristbands, and very dirty spots especially rubbed; it removes surface-dirt, and cleans very effectually those articles which get soiled equally, without being stained or having the dirt rubbed in. It is therefore well adapted for counterpanes, blankets, sheets, table-cloths and towels (if not soiled with grease-spots) and for clothing that has been washed once by hand; and should be considered chiefly as a second washer or rinser.

The wringing-machine is a useful and inexpensive article, saving much labour. One kind is formed of two rollers, and serves the double purpose of wringer and mangler; this renders it unnecessary to send clothes out of the house to be mangled, and thus saves delay and loss.

Utensils Necessary.—In an ordinary household, where the washing is done at home about every fortnight, the following utensils will be required:—

Two large washing-tubs, and one small one (an earthenware pan may be substituted for this); a small washing machine, or the barrel-tub and dolly or peggy, to serve the same purpose; a copper for boiling; a small wringer, or wringer and mangler combined; two open clothes-baskets; clothes lines; wooden clothes-pins or pegs; and props for supporting the lines when laden. A small ironing stove, though not a necessity, saves time and labour, and economises fuel. It keeps up a good supply of irons at a more regular heat and in a cleaner state than can be ensured by an open fire.

A clothes-horse will be required for holding articles to be aired after mangling or ironing; and will be always useful when it is desired to expose a few things to the fire or the air without putting up a clothes-line.

Use of Soda and Washing-Powders.—Most water contains lime in combination with carbonic acid; in proportion to the quantity it contains is the difficulty of cleansing with it, since it is the tendency of lime to harden whatever it touches. Soda and other alkaline substances have the power of drawing away the lime, or loosening its connection with the carbonic acid. Boiling expels the acid, leaving the lime to fall on to the bottom and sides of the vessel or on to any substance the vessel may contain. Water must therefore be softened by boiling or the use of soda (or both) before the clothing is boiled in it, or the lime will enter the fabric and spoil its whiteness.—*(See Boiling.)*

PROCESS OF WASHING.

Sorting.—The general plan is to put together all those articles that can be washed together without injury. Muslins and other fine fabrics would be torn by being dragged about in the water with heavy linen;

coloured articles would be spoiled by the soda, if put in the water used for white things; coarse dirty towels would injure the whiteness of fine wearing-apparel or table-linen. If washed in proper order, each set of things will be passed into the copper without loss of time, and the water that has been used for the finer, will wash the rougher and dirtier.

Lace, or other very delicate fabrics, should be tacked together in folds of several thicknesses and about a quarter of a yard long:—this strengthens them, and renders them less likely to be torn or lost. These light articles form one set in sorting. The next set should contain the linen collars, cuffs, and white shirts, which need great care in washing. Next in order come all the white under-clothing and fine pinafores. Then comes the table linen, and after it, each in a separate group, bed-linen, boys' pinafores, towels, stockings, aprons, coarse towels, dusters, flannels, and coloured prints.

Bed and window hangings are best washed entirely alone, as they require peculiar treatment.

Soaking.—This process is usefully applied to articles that are subject to hard wear, or become stained in use. Garments worn next to the skin generally get stained with perspiration at the neck, wristbands, sleeves, and seams; and the friction, which such parts always have to bear, rubs the stain in, and fixes it. Rough towels and aprons are likely to be marked with grease-spots and other traces of their hard usage. The articles to be soaked should be kept apart in their separate sets; and the evening before washing-day, each set should be steeped in warm water, containing a little soda and dissolved soap, and the parts requiring it should be rubbed over with soap to soften the dirt. Water enough must be used to cover the articles; and they should be slightly

A bad thing never dies.

wrung before they are put into the washing-water next morning, or they will render it cold. Pocket-handkerchiefs should always be soaked in plenty of cold water, without soda, well stirred about, and pretty tightly wrung before put into the wash.

Order of Washing.—We will suppose that two persons are engaged in the work.

(1) *Flannels and Coloured Things.*—These are quickly washed, need no boiling, and require to be dried quickly. It is a good plan, therefore, to do them first, as their chance of drying is better than it would be if they were left till late in the day. The water for washing them requires previous preparation, thus:—Half-a-pound of soap, in small pieces, should be placed in the tub, and a gallon of boiling water poured on to it; this must be well stirred, until the soap is dissolved and a lather formed. Two gallons of water must then be added, so hot only that the hand can with comfort bear to use it. In this the white flannels, lightly held by the edges, are to be moved up and down till cleansed. When the garment is clean, each article having been turned during the first washing, to ensure that both sides of it receive equal care, it is squeezed, (not wrung) and passed to the second tub, where it is again washed in warm water; and finally, rinsed in the small tub or pan of warm water. While the second washer is finishing the white flannels, the first is beginning the coloured ones, which are treated in exactly the same way. Then follow woollen stockings.

Flannel should never be rubbed, wrung, or put into cold water. After rinsing, it must be well shaken, to raise the nap of the cloth. Without this care, it shrinks and the surface felts or mats together, giving the article the appearance and feel of wash-leather.

Prints may be washed in the same water as flannels, and in nearly the same way; but they may be rubbed and wrung, and should be rinsed and cleared in cold water. The last rinsing-water should contain a little salt or alum, which will fix and freshen the colours.

(2) *Muslins and Laces.*—For these fresh water is required, containing soda or pearlash. It can be taken from the copper, leaving that vessel about one-third full, that the water may soon boil in preparation for the first copper-full of white things. The first person washes the muslins and laces, handling them lightly, as they are easily torn; she squeezes the water out of them, and passes them to the second tub for another cleansing; then they are again squeezed, and tied loosely in a muslin bag, that they may not become entangled and torn in boiling—the next process. While the helper has been finishing these, the first washer has taken the next set.

(3) *Linen Collars, Cuffs, and Shirts.*—After the dirtier portions of these are well rubbed, and the articles cleansed on both sides, they are passed on to the second tub, and washed again. These and the bag of muslins next go through the process of

(4) *Boiling.*—The water in the copper must be prepared for this. A portion should be allowed to boil; in this the soda, pearlash, or washing-powder is to be dissolved, and then cold water added till the whole is only moderately warm. The two sets of clothes (muslin and linen) are put into this and allowed to boil for half-an-hour, being pressed down into the water occasionally with a proper stick. If the clothes are put into boiling water, the marks and stains will become fixed; while, if the water has not previously boiled, and deposited the lime it may contain at the bottom or sides of the copper, this lime (which is always released or separated from it in boiling) is deposited in the clothing, and makes it grey and streaky. It is almost impossible to restore the whiteness of linen thus discoloured.

Sit in your place, and none will make you rise.

(5) *Remaining Underclothing* is washed while the first two sets are boiling. The person who washes this set the first time will be at liberty to attend to the copper as soon as that operation is finished.

(6) *Changing the "Boiling."*—The sets of linen in the copper, having boiled during the appointed time, must be carefully lifted out one by one with the copper stick, allowed to drain a few seconds, that as little as possible of the water may be taken with them, and thrown into a tub. Again the copper is emptied to about two-thirds of its depth, fresh soap and soda are supplied, and the copper is, after this has boiled, filled up with cold water.—At the same time, the copper fire is slackened by being banked up with cinders and small coal; thus the heat of the copper gradually increases as the fire burns through. A fresh set of clothing is put in, and the same operation is repeated as each set comes, in its turn, to the boiling stage.

The Table Linen should be washed in perfectly clean water, not in that which has been used for wearing apparel;—there is in the latter practice, something repugnant to all notions of daintiness or nicety. It may be boiled with the underclothing, however; as, by the time the garments have been twice washed, there can be no objection to their going through the remaining process together.

The Rest of the Wearing Apparel is taken through the same steps of first washing, second washing, and boiling, while the first "boil" is being rinsed and finished.

In the same manner, each set follows in regular order through all the stages, until the coarse towels and dusters are reached.

(7) *Rinsing.*—The set of articles taken from the copper is placed, in a tub, under a tap from which the water is allowed to run freely over them and away,

until it comes away quite clear. Meanwhile, the rinser moves the things about, so that the clear water may penetrate to every part, and free them from every trace of soap and soda. They are then wrung, shaken out, and plunged into another tub of cold water, into which stone-blue has been squeezed out of a flannel bag. In this water they must be moved about in as few folds as possible, or the blue, which is intended to neutralize the yellow tint left by the soda, will settle in patches and streaks. The blue-bag must be kept in good order, or the colour will not be properly strained through it, and will lie on the clothes in spots and specks.

(8) *Drying.*—There is a good deal of art in the management of drying. The lines should be so placed that the clothes catch a light breeze, and are protected from rough wind, which would probably tear them and render them yellow; for this purpose, it is often necessary to alter the position of the lines during the day, to suit the changing wind. Coloured things must not be placed in the glare of the sun, which would fade them, and they should hang wrong side out, so that accidental streaks of colour may not show. Garments with plaits or gathers should be so hung that the wet may run from the plaits; thus, a dress should not be hung with the body downward, because the waist and gathers are thick, and need more drying than the skirt. Care is needed to keep the clothes clean. The line must be dry, or they will be marked with a stripe; the pegs must be of wood, because metal will rust, and cause spots of ironmould; and every article used must be quite clean; again, it is necessary to make sure that no garment can drag on the ground, or in blowing about catch against trees, posts, railings, or other objects near. In fastening the clothes to the line, pegs must always be used; tying

We never find all that we seek.

them up by the strings (where they can be so tied) is almost sure to tear off the string, and common pins are certain to produce rents when they are blown about.

Woollen stockings, to prevent shrinking in drying, should be drawn over a stocking-stretcher as soon as they are washed, and allowed to dry on it. The stretcher is a thin flat piece of wood, cut exactly to the shape of the stocking, and is a very inexpensive article. Several stockings may be placed on it at once.

CHAPTER XXI.

FOLDING AND FINISHING.

Folding may be considered the first of the finishing processes, the object being no longer to cleanse the clothes, but to turn them out fresh, glossy, and free from creases. Clothing should be slightly damp when folded, otherwise mangling or ironing has little effect, and the creases remain; if they have become quite dry, therefore, they must be sprinkled with clear cold water, folded, and then allowed to remain a few hours before they are mangled or ironed, that the dampness may be uniform. Each article will require to be turned right side outward, having been dried on the wrong.

The general direction of the long lines of the folds should be with the length of the article, parallel with the selvages and long seams of the cloth.

The bodies of large garments must be folded first: they must be laid on a large table to allow of the folding of the minor parts, and every portion must be laid as evenly as possible. Sheets and table-cloths can be best managed by two persons. To fold them take them by the hem and the end where marked;

Look before you leap.

put the two corners together, so that the article is wrong side outwards, with the crease exactly down the middle. Fold the middle against the selvages, producing four folds, with the selvages together. Take the outer fold, and bring it round to the other side so that the middle crease or seam lies between the selvages. It will be wrong side out until this outer fold is brought round. It may now be folded across, the length being divided into halves again and again. Handkerchiefs are folded in the same manner. During the folding, the articles should be arranged in sets for ironing, and all this part of the work should be finished on the evening of washing-day.

Starching.—Put two table-spoonfuls of starch in a large bowl; add two table-spoonfuls of cold water, and rub it to a smooth paste; pour on a quart of boiling water, stirring all the time. A lump of sugar, dissolved in the starch, will prevent the clothes from sticking to the iron, and give them a gloss: the same object is gained by stirring it round once or twice with a white wax candle kept for the purpose. If greater stiffening power is required, half a tea-spoonful of powdered gum-arabic may be dissolved, and mixed with the boiling starch; but this, if often used, is likely to cause yellowness. The bowl must be covered closely, to prevent the formation of scum on the top, and the starch be allowed to stand till lukewarm, when it is ready for use.

Shirts and linen collars should be starched first. For these, the starch must be thick; when they are done, a little boiling water may be added to it for muslins, and more still for laces, which should not be too highly stiffened. To starch a shirt, take the wrong side of the front by the middle, gather it up in the hand, and dip it into the starch, without letting the latter touch the surrounding portions; squeeze it as dry as possible in a clean cloth; dip and dry the wristbands in the same manner, and hang the garment on the clothes-horse near the fire to become perfectly dry. Collars and cuffs are similarly treated. Muslins and laces must be squeezed, well shaken, and clapped between the hands a few minutes; this makes them look transparent, by beating out the film of the starch.

Printed cotton dresses, if of dark colours, last longer fresh, if stiffened in thin paste; this is made by mixing half a teacupful of flour with a little cold water till smooth, and boiling it in a quart of water. Gum may be also added, and with greater advantage than to white things. This starch is unsuitable for muslins and for anything that requires clearness; it is also unfit for prints with a white groundwork, as it gives a yellowish tint.

Another method of starching is sometimes practised. The articles are dipped one by one into raw or uncooked starch, which is prepared by mixing two table-spoonfuls of starch with very little water till smooth, and adding a pint of cold water. After each article is dipped in this, it should be rinsed lightly in cold water, well squeezed, rolled up as tightly as possible, and packed in the starch-cloth for an hour, when it is ready for ironing. The starch must be stirred occasionally while the dipping is going forward, as it settles very quickly.

The smallest flaw or flake in the starch disfigures the linen; it is a good plan, therefore, to strain it through muslin; and everything should be dipped wrong side first. One of the persons who has been engaged in washing should avoid all rough and dirty work afterwards, that her hands may be exquisitely clean for the starching.

Silence seldom does harm.

Mangling not only smoothes the clothes, but makes them whiter, stiffer, and more glossy when finished. It is especially requisite for bed and table linen, which need no after care beyond airing. Other articles should be finished by ironing; and for this reason, they should not be aired when taken from the mangle. Heavy and bulky articles should be mangled apart from small ones, or they will prevent the pressure from reaching them. Flannels and starched things should not be mangled at all.

This work is best done in the first part of the morning, while the irons are heating.

Ironing is a process that should not be interrupted. To this end, a strong clear fire and a good supply of hot irons are necessary at the commencement, and the fire must be steadily kept up. Wood or coke may be used with advantage for this purpose; as the aim is to obtain the greatest possible amount of heat, and freedom from smoke and tar. The face of the iron must be quite smooth and clean, or the starch will catch and cling to it, and the appearance of the clothes be spoiled. A large table or ironing board must be placed in a good light—in front of a window, if possible—and on it the ironing-blanket, a stout woollen cloth, folded twice or thrice to give thickness; over this again the ironing-sheet is spread, and firmly fastened at the corners. At the right-hand corner is placed the iron-stand. Beside the stove is laid a large sheet of strong brown paper, folded to three or four thicknesses, and thinly strewn with dry and very finely powered Bath-brick; on this each iron, as it is taken from the fire, is rubbed. A clean cloth for dusting the irons after this process, a padded iron-holder, and a small flannel-covered board for placing inside the shirt-fronts, complete the list of implements. The clothes-horse should be so placed as to form a fire-screen for the ironer; and the articles which do not require ironing, having been mangled first, should be hung on it to air as soon as possible, so that the heat of the fire may be utilised to the fullest advantage. The practice of making up a large fire on another day, only for airing the linen, shows want of forethought and good management.

The person who has to do the principal part of the work commences with the shirts, these being the most difficult articles to iron. The linen collars and cuffs follow; then the muslins and laces; then the rest of the underclothing; and then, print dresses. The rougher, unstarched articles should lie in a handy place for the ironer, so that the heat of each fresh iron may be tried on one of these before it is used for the fine starched things, which are particularly liable to scorching. The article to be ironed should not be taken out of the starch-sheet until everything is quite ready for beginning; and care must be taken to keep in the dampness of the remaining things, by throwing the sheet or a damp cloth over them; otherwise those ironed last will be partially dry, and cannot be done evenly.

A mother when ironing should always have one of her girls at work with her:—a mistress, her young servant. The less-skilled ironer should take the handkerchiefs, aprons, and so on; thus gaining, not only practice, but experience, from seeing how the finer things are done.

To Iron a Shirt.—Lay the length parallel with the length of the ironing-blanket, with the neck to the left-hand. Take the whole length of the back, from neck to hem, exactly in the middle, and fold it in half; iron one half, then turn the garment over and iron the other. Next iron the wristbands—first lightly on the wrong side, then, with heavy pressure, on the right to make them look clear and glossy; the sleeves are next to be done, and allowed to fall into plaits from the shoulder to the wrist; a final pressing will keep the plaits in their place. Next stretch the whole body of the shirt on the table, front upwards, and iron the rest of the unstarched portion, beginning with the part about the neck. The "front-board" must be placed under the right or button side of the linen front, and the plaits laid perfectly flat on it, the iron pressed firmly on the folds and passed quickly up and down, drying them with a good gloss as it goes. The left or button-hole side is treated in the same way, and the ironing is finished. The folding is the next care. For this, the garment is carefully lifted by the shoulders and laid, face downwards, at full length; the ends of the side seam next to the ironer are taken lightly in the fingers and the seam folded back so as to reach nearly the middle of the back; the sleeve still at its full length is then folded back again towards the ironer. Thus there are three thicknesses of the garment—the sleeve at the top, the side of the shirt, and underneath, the front. The other side is folded in the same way; then the hand is placed across the garment just below the linen front, and the other hand lightly turns the upper half of the shirt over, so that it lies front upwards. All this must be quickly done, and the shirt must immediately be hung before a brisk fire, that the starched parts may be fixed at once, otherwise they become limp.

Linen Collars and Cuffs must be spread out quite straight, slightly ironed on the wrong side, and finished on the right. A firm pressure onward, with a hot iron, will give the requisite gloss and finish to these, as to all linen things; and instant airing at a good fire will fix the stiffness.

Muslins and Laces must show no gloss, and are

Self-praise is no recommendation.

therefore ironed on the wrong side. They should be perfectly clear, showing no indication of starch-film. The pattern of embroidered work is thrown into relief by ironing it on a very soft cloth or blanket.

Handkerchiefs must be spread with the selvage running from left to right, and the iron passed to and fro in lines parallel with it. Without due attention to this, the article is pulled out of shape and stretched,—if of fine material, strained and torn. The handkerchief should be finished on the right side, and folded so that the mark comes uppermost.

Dresses.—The body and sleeves of the dress are the parts first ironed. For the skirt it is necessary to use a board resting on trestles. The board should be from two-and-a-half to three feet long, by eighteen inches wide, and should be covered with flannel or have the ironing-blanket firmly fastened on it. This is slipped inside the skirt, which is then ironed in stripes or portions, the iron passing from the hem to the gathers. Each portion, as it is finished, is passed over the board, and hangs without creasing.

Frills are fluted, goffered, plaited, or crimped, according to taste. The first two methods give them a stiff look, which is not in keeping with their intended purpose of softening off the outlines of the clothing; crimping gives by far the prettiest result.

Ironing-Stoves.—These contrivances save fuel, and render it unnecessary that the ironer should be exposed to the fierce heat of an open fire, which is very fatiguing. By its use, too, the irons are kept quite clean, and thus time is saved. In a house which is lighted by gas, it is quite possible to improvise one of these useful articles by attaching one end of an india-rubber tube to the ordinary gas-burner, the other end to a small gas-stove or stand, which can be placed beside the kitchen grate, or on the oven. The

Truth seeks no corners.

jet of gas is spread by the stove; and a plate of tin or of iron, placed on the open iron framework immediately over the flame, soon becomes hot enough to heat two or three irons at once. This contrivance does away with the necessity of making up an extraordinary fire for ironing, and soon repays its cost, which is only trifling at first. A suitable stove may be obtained for eighteenpence; the tubing will cost very little, and is generally sold in the proper size, with the stoves.

Box-Irons.—The box-iron is a bright iron box, of the same shape as the flat-iron, and prepared for use by the insertion of a red-hot heater. It is preferred by many persons for ironing shirts, because it is never soiled by contact with the stove. It makes the work exceedingly laborious, however, the ironer being much exposed to the fire in putting in and taking out the heaters; and it causes a great consumption of fuel, because the fire has to be opened out every time a heater is replaced.

Care of Laundry Utensils.—Washing-tubs require to be kept in a shady or dark place, to prevent them from shrinking and allowing the water to run out. If this leakage should happen, the tub should be filled with water some days before it is required for use; this will cause the staves to swell, and thus stop the crevices. Clothes-lines and pins must be occasionally boiled in the copper after the washing is done, in order to bleach them:—they require very thorough drying. The pins should be kept in a bag so made as to hang over the shoulder of the person who uses them; the careless practice of throwing them on the ground not only soils them and gives the extra trouble of gathering them up, but leads to their lying out all night in the damp, and thus destroys them. The line should be neatly wound up and kept in a bag till wanted: if left out all night, or hung up without any covering, it gathers dirt and becomes damp. Clothes horses and baskets should be scrubbed white, and the copper, after being thoroughly washed, should be left dry. Attention to these matters will prevent the annoyance of finding carefully-washed clothes spoiled in the drying.

At the end of the washing-day, the copper-fire should be cleared out, and the wash-house left neat. After ironing, the irons must be put away quite clean in a dry place. Ironing-blankets, sheets, and boards, should be exquisitely clean; and whatever implements are used in laundry-work must be scrupulously preserved from dust, rust, and mildew.

CHAPTER XXII.

FOOD.

Waste of the Body.—In the bodies of animals, death commences with life. The destruction of the tissues or substances—the bones and flesh, the blood and brain—of which the body is formed, is a process of waste, or death in life, incessant in its action, and only varying in rapidity; going on sometimes so as to be plainly felt, sometimes so slowly as to be imperceptible. It is quickened by exertion. After a long walk, we feel tired and unable to proceed, because the body has thrown off some part of its substance, and needs that the lost particles should be replaced to enable it to undertake any fresh exertion.

But if the body is thus wasted away by activity, how is it that we are not smaller after a long walk than before it? Rather let us ask, *are* we smaller after it? The only way to find this out, is to weigh oneself both before and after the exertion; and the answer will be that the body is really and perceptibly

Everything is good in its season.

lighter when weighed the second time. If the exertion is severe and long continued, the appearance of the body will begin to show loss of substance; the face will look pale and haggard, the erect bearing will be changed to a stoop, and in some cases, the whole person will look thin and worn.

Not only are muscle and sinew constantly dying away and needing renewal. After several hours of hard study, we discover we have lost the power of understanding and thinking; this is because we have been exercising the brain and partially worn it away, just as by walking we wear the limbs; and we feel that "much study is a weariness to the flesh." After great excitement, we become exhausted and unfit to perform our usual duties, because the excitement has worn away the nerves and rendered them weak. From whatever cause it arises, and in whatever part of the system it is perceived, the feeling of fatigue is the feeling of partial death.

Let us look at the blazing fire, and see what goes on there. At the top is piled coal or wood: during combustion, this fuel is gradually changed to flaming gas and smoke, then to glowing cinders; then the blaze becomes less vigorous, the fire weaker and weaker, until all that is left is a handful of ashes, the waste portion of the fuel. The strength of the coal is spent in the heat it gave while burning, its substance has changed into smoke, gas, and ashes. Thus it is with the body during activity, except that the substances that form it are not in every point the same as those that form the fire. We cannot see the waste particles of the bodily flame as we see the waste portion of the fuel; they are too small and fine to be visible; but they fly off into the air every time we breathe, and come through the pores with the perspiration, making the garment next the skin, in a few days, dirty and

Eat in measure and defy the doctor.

yellow. Exercise causes us to breathe quickly and to perspire much, and thus to throw off waste substance rapidly.

If action wastes the body, or makes it die rapidly, can we preserve it by inaction? To some extent we can: the waste goes on but slowly while we remain outwardly still. But the very act of breathing,—the action of the stomach in digesting food, of the brain in thinking, of the tongue in speaking—the mere lifting of the hand or closing of the eye—will use up some portion of the living body and produce waste. As we cannot have a spark of fire without the burning of some combustible substance, so living bodies cannot give the faintest sign of life without expenditure of their living substance. Few persons would care to sit still, without speaking, reading, or even thinking, in order to save the wear and tear of the body; and even if they would or could, the internal organs would be acting and wearing away their substance.

How do infants, who cannot walk or talk,—who have no reading or thinking to do—destroy the substance of the body by action? To answer this enquiry, it is only necessary to watch an infant. It is one of the most active of animals; its limbs, in our day mercifully allowed their freedom, are in continual action during its waking hours; it kicks and plunges incessantly, until it can crawl and stand. It exercises its vocal powers, often with troublesome and prolonged intensity. As to its brain, think what a student of language an infant is! Try to acquire a language, simply by hearing it spoken, without any help of books,—to understand and speak it as a child learns its native tongue,—and you may form some idea of the work done by the brain during the period of infancy. And besides this, the little one studies everything around it,—forms likes and dislikes for persons, places, and things,—attains a curious knowledge of human nature, and forms opinions and judgments by processes known only to itself.

Indolent people do not wear away their bodies very quickly; but they gain nothing by this inaction. The body or mind is healthiest that is worn quickly and repaired constantly; just as the fire is brightest that is kept rapidly burning and continually replenished.

Repair of the Body.—The body is repaired, and prevented from dying entirely, by means of the food we eat. At every meal we supply it with material which it can manufacture into flesh, bone, and nerve, to replace that which has been worn away. If we work hard and wear out the body quickly, we must eat plenty of food, or the body becomes thin, and we have no strength for work; if we do not work, but sit still after eating, we shall have but little appetite for the next meal, because, not having used up the last supply in action, we do not require more. The bodies of children require more food than that which would supply the waste; for a child is growing larger every day, and its increased bulk comes from its food; for this reason, a child eats more, in proportion to its size, than a full-grown person, and an infant more than an older child.

Heat.—But the body requires to be kept warm, as well as to be repaired. It is a wonderful workshop, wherein bread and meat are turned into flesh and bone and beautiful blood-vessels, and brain and nerves, by means of which we can think and feel; but for the performance of this work it must be kept at a certain heat. We put dough into an oven, and the heat causes it to change into firm bread, very different from the soft sticky substance we made by simply mixing flour, yeast, and water. So it is with the food

Spare well and spend well.

we eat. The bread and meat, like the dough, have to be changed into other substances, forming the body, and heat is one of the things necessary to effect this change. No internal organ can continue to act unless this heat is kept up, and it must be kept up by food, which is the fuel of the body as well as its material of repair; turning to heat, just as the lighted fuel does in the grate. Indeed, some kinds of food are made up chiefly of carbon, the same substance that, in coal, wood, and peat, makes them such excellent heat-givers. The coal, before it was buried under the rocks, breathed in the carbon by its leaves, and there it has lain, stored up till man discovered its warmth-giving qualities as fuel; but the same substance is still absorbed by leaves and fruits, and stored up for our use as food. The heat of the fire is caused by the carbon in the coal mixing with the oxygen in the atmosphere. The heat of the body is maintained by our taking food containing carbon, and then drawing the air into our lungs; the oxygen the air contains is carried by the blood-vessels all over the body, where it meets the carbon, and in a wonderful manner turns it to heat, not great enough to make a blaze, or even a red glow such as we see in the fire, but sufficient to make us comfortably warm or uncomfortably hot.

Food, then, builds up the growing body, repairs the wear that is constantly going on, and keeps up the heat necessary to enable the body to turn the food into the various tissues and substances required.

Composition of Food.—The food which gives heat contains much carbon; that which turns into living flesh and other bodily substance contains much nitrogen. Both carbon and nitrogen are found in various forms and in many different species of food, but both are necessary to the sustenance of life.

Carbon may take the form of *Starch*, which is the principal constituent of potatoes, rice, sago, and the various kinds of grain; or it may form *Sugar,* as in the sugar-cane, in sweet fruits, in carrots, parsnips, and beetroots. In a third form, it is *Gum,* or syrup. This is sugar in a different state or stage, as may be seen if dry sugar is placed over the fire, when it will at once assume this form. Honey, treacle, and liquid glucose (the syrup of fruit) are instances of this substance, which would turn into heat in the body sooner than sugar in the dry state. *Fat* is the fourth form of carbon, used most by the inhabitants of the Arctic regions, who feast on whale-blubber and seal-oil. The people of tropical countries take their carbon in rice, maize, and fruits. Those of temperate regions take it in all its forms.

There is, as may be supposed, a somewhat close connection between these four forms of the one substance. Starch can be converted into sugar by a chemical change, such as that produced on potatoes by frost, which turns them quite sweet. The action of growth has the same effect. A potato which has sprouted in a cellar will be sweet when boiled: malt, which is barley forced by heat and damp to sprout rapidly, is very much sweeter than the grain from which it is made; indeed, sweet-wort, the infusion of malt, is almost like syrup. Starch, sugar, and gum, when taken into the body, unless at once consumed in heat, are converted into fat.

Nitrogen, the building-up material, is also found in various forms. In beef, mutton, and all kinds of flesh, it is contained in the juice and fibre, and is then called *Albumen* and *Fibrin.* In grain, it takes another form, and is called *Gluten;* in cheese, another, called *Casein;* and in the seeds and pods of food-plants like the pea and bean it assumes yet another, and is known as *Legumen.*

Variety in Food.—These varieties in carbon and nitrogen have not the same taste, because they are differently mixed. Thus, while they serve the same useful purpose in the body, they give pleasure to the sense of taste, and an agreeable change of diet. A good housewife, in providing for her household, follows Nature's plan, and studies to make a diversity of food out of few materials. It would be possible to supply nearly all that is required by the body, by condensing or extracting the food-substances from the different meats and vegetables and swallowing these at intervals in the shape of small doses; but this would do away with the enjoyment of all the pleasant flavours that have been provided for our delight. The facts, that the same substances are found in so many different forms in the animal and vegetable world, that the teeth of man are adapted for eating both animal and vegetable food, and that we find pleasure in variety of food and flavour, all seem to indicate that our daily nutriment should be taken in various forms, as well as in sufficient quantity.

CHAPTER XXIII.

FOOD (continued.)

Mineral Substances Required.—The higher animals, with man at their head, are provided with a framework or skeleton of bone which gives shape to the body, and firmness to the limbs. Bone is composed chiefly of two substances, lime and gelatine; the former gives hardness, the latter, flexibility. Without gelatine, the bones would snap like steel; without lime, they would bend under the slightest weight or pressure. The bones of young animals contain but little lime; it is added little by little as the body

There's ne'er a great feast but some fare ill.

grows larger: in old age, on the contrary, the gelatine is deficient in quantity; hence the liability of old persons to break bones when they fall. The substances needed for the growth and nourishment of the bones are obtained from the food and then carried to them by a set of blood-vessels generally too small to be visible. Besides lime for the bones, small portions of flint are required, to give firmness to the hair and the nails.

These mineral substances are as necessary to the proper nourishment of the body as carbon or nitrogen. Like them, they are found in many articles of food; but, unlike them, they are found always in the same form, and retain that form while doing their work in the body. They can be obtained from some vegetables, from milk, from water, and largely from the husk of grain: hence, oatmeal, which contains the outer portion of the grain, is rich in these substances, while fine flour is deficient in them; and coarse bread, made of wheat from which only the outer husk has been taken, is better food than that made from finely-dressed flour.

Instinctive Choice of Food.—Since many people know nothing of the properties of food, how is it that mistakes are not made, and the wrong kinds chosen? The fact is, that mistakes are made, but chiefly by those who have opportunities of knowing better; the children of wealthy but unwise people are often weak-limbed, because they are fed on the most finely-dressed food, which does not contain sufficient nourishment for their bodies. The sturdy peasant-child is well nourished on his rough fare of porridge or coarse bread, while the delicately-reared child of the rich is only half-fed by his abundant but over-refined diet. The physician sees what is needed, and supplies in the form of medicine the material which should have been

There's skill in gruel making.

enjoyed as a part of the daily food. When the body is healthily exercised and worn, the appetite instinctively seeks suitable means of satisfaction; the plain food that lies close around will tempt and please it; and no need will be felt to seek for dainties, if only it can find a supply of bread-and-cheese, beef, mutton, potatoes, cabbage, milk,—just the common produce of our own country. But if bodily exercise is neglected, and the brain and nerves only are worn out, as in the case of those engaged in study or mercantile business, the appetite fails, and experiments are tried to tempt it; and the more artificial the mode of life, the more the taste is perverted, and the greater are the mistakes made in the choice of food. An ordinary housewife, providing for the wants of a fairly healthy family, finds that all will by instinct prefer the combinations of food best adapted for supplying warmth, repairing waste, and building up bone; though neither she nor they may be aware of the distinctive use of each article consumed. Beef and potatoes, bacon and beans, bread and butter, bread and cheese, are all thoroughly scientific combinations, giving to the body every species of nutriment it requires; and none are more generally chosen or relished by people in good health.

To see how our usual meals fulfil their purpose, let us analyse a plain breakfast of coffee or tea, bread-and-butter, and bacon or eggs. Bread (of which we eat a large quantity in proportion to other things) contains starch to warm us, albumen and gluten to strengthen and repair the body. But the starch will take some time to turn into heat; we therefore eat butter with it, which changes very quickly: the cream and sugar in the tea or coffee, the yolk of the egg, and the fat of the bacon, serve the same purpose. The white of the egg and the lean part of the bacon, like the gluten and albumen in the bread, give strength;

and the small particles of lime and flint in the bread go to the bones, teeth, hair, and nails, to keep them in repair. But of what use is the tea or coffee which forms so important and pleasant a feature of the breakfast? Both of these drinks are brain-restoring. We know by experience their power of refreshing, especially when we are suffering from over-exertion of the brain or nerves; this effect is produced by a substance they contain, which acts on the nerve tissue and therefore on the brain, the largest nerve-mass. It restores the worn nerve and rouses without unduly stimulating it. Like all good things, these restorative drinks may be taken to excess, and their action is then injurious; but taken with a warm and well-cooked breakfast such as that described, they rouse and nourish the mental powers for their daily work of guiding and directing bodily activity.

Sufficiency of Food.—It is the scheme of Providence that man should have a sufficient supply of nourishing food;—that he ever starves or is imperfectly fed, is, directly or indirectly, the fault of himself or of his fellow-men.

Before his creation God provided an abundant variety, and then, endowing him with intellect, made him lord of the earth and commanded him to subdue it. He has dominion over the beast of the forest, the fowl of the air, the moving creatures of the great ocean, and even the stubborn earth itself; and when he uses aright the powers with which he is endowed, he makes the barren wilderness a fruitful field, the wild animals of the plains his flocks and herds, the birds of the air and the fishes of the seas and rivers, his daily food. In the latter part of the first chapter of Genesis we see how bountiful is the provision for man's needs;—how terrible a perversion of God's will is the suffering and semi-starvation so common in

Too many cooks spoil the broth.

crowded and highly-civilized countries. The causes of such suffering are many. The poor are ignorant of any new and better means of livelihood, or lacking in energy and industry: yet these very defects are often caused by generations of insufficient diet or by want of fresh air. The rich, or those who are striving to become so, in their endeavours to amass wealth too often neglect the poor, taking no thought for any interests but their own.

When the inhabitants of a country can no longer procure for themselves the necessities of life, their duty is to move onward to new lands which need only the care of man to supply what they require; and some people, with leisure, education, and means at their command, seeing this duty, try to remedy the evils of privation and want by teaching men to help themselves,—to seek in new countries the means of life which fail them in the old.

Nor was it intended that man should spend his whole earthly existence in the struggle for mere food sufficient to keep the body in life, to the neglect of mental and spiritual growth. By such a course, he, with all the responsibilities of a being destined for an endless higher existence, is reduced to the level of the beasts that perish with this life. That this state of things exists, cannot be ignored or denied; but it is a state utterly at variance with the will of Him who declares "Man doth not live by bread alone."

CHAPTER XXIV.

ECONOMY OF FOOD.

It is the duty of man by his labour to make the earth productive; it is the duty of woman to turn to the best account the food so produced,—to obtain

Welcome is the best cheer.

from it the greatest possible amount of nourishment, taking pattern by Nature, in whose works not a grain of any substance is wasted. From the daily food are derived not only muscular strength, but the vital energy and power which make the intelligent and industrious workman, and the bright and active housewife. The brain, by means of which we think, and feel joy or sorrow, and resolve or *will*, is a great nerve, which, like any other portion of the bodily frame, requires nourishment to enable it to perform its duties. A sufficient supply of properly-chosen and well-cooked food is one of the best preventives of intemperance. The poor work-people of crowded cities, whose earnings are too small to purchase food enough, are not only emaciated and thin, but they shiver and starve for the vital warmth that comes from proper nourishment; to supply this need, they too often resort to stimulants, and thus ruin body, mind, and soul. Many well-fed people do not understand, because they have never felt, the craving for warmth experienced by the ill-fed.

It must not be supposed, however, that by ill-fed persons only the poor are meant; as we have seen, it is quite possible to starve one portion of the system while we are over-feeding another, and a craving for stimulants may result from an insufficiently-nourished brain, as well as from an emaciated body. A good housewife will so arrange the food of the household as to supply a judicious mixture of bone-forming, strength-giving or nitrogenous, and warmth-giving or carbon material. So far as her means will allow, she will vary each of these kinds, that the appetite may not be destroyed by the monotonous recurrence of the same food prepared in the same way. The provision must of necessity be in accordance with the income, and great consideration must be given to the

Change is lightsome, and fools are fond of it.

procuring of a sufficient supply. If the income is small, there will be less variety than in the opposite case, and the food must be of a less expensive kind; but it need not be on that account less palatable or nourishing:—the coarsest may be made excellent by good cooking, while the most expensive may, by ignorance or carelessness, be rendered indigestible and distasteful. When the means are good, the chief part of the diet will consist of the best joints of meat for roasting and boiling, varied with fish, poultry, and game, and accompanied by a large variety of vegetables. In such a household, there will always be plenty of material for making good soup, which is the best kind of food for invalids and young children. Where the income is small and great contrivance is necessary, the coarser joints only can be purchased; the animal food must be taken in the form of soups and stews; and vegetables—especially potatoes, peas, and beans—will enter largely into the diet; oatmeal, porridge, milk, and coarse bread (which is more nutritious than that made from very fine flour) should form the lighter meals. Roast meat will rarely be used in such a case, if a comfortable meal is to be provided, because the best joints are expensive, and those of a coarser quality are rendered tough by roasting. Boiled meat affords soup, and stew, plenty of gravy; with these a large quantity of potatoes, pudding, vegetables, and bread can be eaten; and such a dish may occasionally form the entire meal, if the income will not allow a meat dinner. To make a mid-day meal of tea and bread-and-butter is most extravagant and pernicious; such food is insufficient and unsatisfying, while its cost equals that of a good warm, nourishing dinner. The value of food is increased if it is taken warm, as the heat raises the temperature of the stomach and so assists the process of digestion, besides increasing the warmth of the whole body.

Believe one half of what you hear.

Food, then, may be coarse; but it should be sufficient in quantity, good of its kind, warm, well-cooked, and well-varied.

The rule that the best is the cheapest applies to food as well as to clothing. Low-priced flour is made from badly-ripened wheat, and yields poor bread both in quantity and quality; low-priced tea is old and flavourless, or adulterated with sloe-leaves, so that a large quantity is required; cheap coffee is mixed with chicory, which can be bought separately at a very low rate; and cheap sugar, being imperfectly refined and cleansed, has little sweetening power and a strong disagreeable taste.

Too much time and thought must not be expended on eating. If the appetite is kept healthy by exercise and fresh air, a plain diet is always enjoyed; the constant use of highly-seasoned dishes only pampers and destroys the appetite, and causes wasteful expenditure of time and trouble in preparation.

Arrangement of a Dinner.—A plain dinner consists of two or three courses,—fish or soup, meat with vegetables, and pudding. Some skill may be exercised in arranging these. Thus, a hot joint, with vegetables and a pudding, is a good dinner in itself; a cold joint should be preceded by warm soup; on the third day the meat should be served as a haricot (a kind of savoury stew with vegetables) or in some other of the many ways of cooking cold meat, the bones being stewed down for gravy or soup.

Should one part of the meal be heavy or difficult of digestion, the rest should be light:—thus, a meat pie should not be followed by a pudding made of flour, but by sago, tapioca, corn flour, or baked apples; the flour pudding will be very enjoyable after some lighter preparation of meat.

Who spends before he thrives, will starve before he thinks.

Soup.—The poor and working classes in England will be better fed when they learn, from their Scotch, French, and German neighbours, the art of soup-making and put it daily in practice. Through ignorance, much food is wasted by the needy, which, in the homes of the rich, is carefully used in the "digester." This is an iron pot; as its name implies, its office is to extract the nourishment from the bones or meat put into it. The stomach performs this digesting when we eat solid meat, but is relieved of the task when it has been performed beforehand in the soup-kettle; hence the peculiar fitness of soup as a diet for children, invalids, and persons whose physical powers are weak. The stomach, however strong, has limited powers: it cannot obtain any nutriment from tough or hard substances. But tendons, gristle, and tough or coarse meat, slowly stewed for ten or twelve hours, are reduced to a soft and perfectly digestible substance: bones, treated in the same way, yield all their gelatine, and some of their mineral constituents; and the soup thus obtained, when flavoured and thickened with vegetables, is not only pleasant to the taste, but most valuable as a combination of warmth-giving, flesh-forming, and bone-nourishing foods. Excellent soup can be made from vegetables, without meat, and should be used occasionally for the sake of variety or economy.—(See "*Soups.*")

Vegetables and Fruit form an important part of a well-arranged dietary; they supply to the body not only a fair proportion of strength and warmth, but some very valuable salts and acids, which keep the blood in a healthy condition. Scurvy and other diseases result from insufficient fresh vegetable food, as we see in the case of ships' crews compelled to live for weeks or months on salt meat and biscuit. The potato contains much water and starch, but little

After dinner sit awhile.

strength-giving material; we, therefore, eat with it meat, which contains much strength-giving, but little warmth-giving, substance. It supplies no fat; therefore, it is eaten with butter or gravy, or cooked with dripping. In Ireland buttermilk takes the place of meat with this favourite vegetable. The cheapest diet would be one entirely of potatoes, which would supply at small cost all the carbon and nitrogen required by the body; but such a diet would be a great waste of fuel-food, for a large quantity, containing an excess of starch, must be eaten in order to obtain the requisite amount of flesh-forming food; besides, it would be extremely unpalatable on account of its sameness. But many very savoury and excellent dishes can be prepared from potatoes with a little meat.

Turnips, carrots, parsnips, and beet contain a large quantity of sugar and much water. They purify the blood; and, although they do not afford much nourishment, are valuable as fuel-food, and as flavouring for soups and stews. Turnips, having a very delicate flavour, are generally eaten with mutton; carrots and parsnips, with beef.

Cabbage is richer in flesh forming substances than any of the above-named vegetables. It is savoury, and more valuable as food, when eaten with bacon.

Peas and beans contain about a quarter of their weight of flesh forming substances, and therefore form excellent food for those who have a great deal of muscular exertion. This is the reason for feeding horses with beans; their work is entirely done by the muscles. The digestion of such food is, however, difficult; hence peas and beans are useless to persons whose digestive powers are weak, because they cannot turn the nutritive substance into the proper state

After supper, walk a mile.

for becoming muscle, bone, or nerve. A ploughman, strong and healthy, may be strengthened by a meal of beans and bacon; but the same meal would be useless to a sickly needlewoman, because the digestive organs of the latter would be unequal to the task of assimilating such food.

Pulse—that is, food of the bean and pea kind—contains very little fat, though very rich in legumen, one of the flesh-forming foods; therefore, it is generally eaten with pork or bacon, or cooked in butter or oil. The varieties chiefly used in this country as fresh vegetables, are the green pea and broad bean, of which the seeds only are eaten, and the French bean and scarlet-runner, of which the pod is used also. Besides these, some are used after drying:—haricots, or small white kidney beans, when carefully cooked, are the most digestible of these. Split-peas are the seeds of the Egyptian lentil, deprived of the outer husk; they are extensively used, especially for soup-making, and as a vegetable under the name of peas-pudding. In either form they are very valuable and nourishing. The soup is so rich in strength-giving substance, that it does not need the addition of meat; though it is more savoury if made with the liquor in which bones have been stewed, or bacon boiled. Grey peas are eaten in some parts of the country: they are prepared by long steeping and boiling, and then fried in butter or dripping: but, however savoury, they are indigestible, since they are not deprived of the outer husk.

French and scarlet beans can be preserved green for winter use.

Lying rides on Debt's back.

CHAPTER XXV.

ECONOMY OF FOOD (continued.)

MEAT.

A joint of meat without fat shows that the animal was not well fed, or was not in a healthy condition when killed; the lean of such meat will be dry and tasteless, and give very little nourishment. Of each kind of meat, the lean fibre contains about the same quantity of nutritious substance, in proportion to its weight; yet some kinds nourish the body better than others, because this substance is more easily drawn out and digested. Thus, mutton is more nourishing than beef, for weak persons, because the fibres of the latter are too dense and tough to be easy of digestion; we therefore give a mutton-chop, not a beef-steak, to an invalid.

Pork and Bacon are perhaps the cheapest animal foods; they are, however, deficient in strength-giving substance, and contain a large proportion of fat. When this kind of meat forms the chief meal of the day, it is eaten with those vegetables that will supply the elements in which it is deficient; beans, peas, and cabbage are the most suitable. Fat pork or bacon is also eaten with fowl, veal, tongue, and other meats that are wanting in fat.

Veal, Lamb, and the flesh of very young animals generally, though very tender, do not contain so much nutriment as full-grown meat. The bones are rich in gelatine, and hence make good stock for soup. The flesh of wild animals is darker and stronger in flavour than that of the domestic or home-fed kinds: it has very little fat, and the lean is easily digested; hence partridges, pheasants, and many other wild birds afford suitable food for invalids.

The Nutritive Substances in meat are known as

Fibrin and Gelatine; they are found in the lean. The round of beef and the leg of mutton or pork contain the greatest quantities of lean fibre, and, therefore, the greatest amount of nourishment. The housewife should always calculate, when buying meat, the proportions of bone, of fat, and of lean fibre; she cannot otherwise estimate its true value.

For Roasting, the best joints are sirloin and ribs of beef; leg, shoulder, and loin of mutton; leg and loin of pork; fillet and breast of veal. These are sold at the highest prices, and are not generally within the reach of those whose income is small.

For Boiling, the round, brisket, and thick and thin flanks of beef are suitable. They are more serviceable than roasting joints, and their cost is less. Good soup may be made of the liquor in which they are boiled. Neck of mutton, knuckle of veal, and sheep's head, also make excellent soup, and cost very little.

For Stewing, the leg, skirt, and sticking-piece of beef, and the trimmings of joints, are the best, and cost little, compared with roasting-joints. Beef-skirt is very tender, and excellent for pie, pudding, or stew. Many of the internal organs, and much of what is wrongly called the offal, of the animal, form wholesome and even delicate food. The brains, tongue, heart, liver, sweetbread, stomach or tripe, feet, and tail, are used by those who understand the art of cooking, and form a pleasant change of diet.

FISH.

Fish is less solid than meat, and contains a great deal of water; it is therefore less nourishing, and a large quantity must be eaten in order to gain sufficient strength from it. Besides, it is so easily digested, that strong and healthy people feel it unsatisfying;

A good wife and health are a man's best wealth.

and the craving for food soon returns after a meal of fish. It is, however, a pleasant and popular food, in most parts of our country cheap, and in many places very plentiful. With a little cold meat, it makes a good and substantial meal, and those who study comfort as well as economy will so arrange that fish supplies a warm element in an otherwise cold dinner. Housewives with less money at their command would do well to provide a fish dinner occasionally, especially as children are generally very fond of this food. The cheaper kinds, such as cod, ling, mackerel, and flounders, will form, with vegetables, an excellent meal.

Fish is of two kinds, "white" and "oily." The flesh of the white kind is almost without fat, all the fatty substances in the body of the fish being contained in the liver; hence this kind is peculiarly fit for invalids.

Whiting is the most dainty and digestible white fish; its flesh being particularly light and dry, it is most frequently chosen as food for the sick.

Soles rank next to whiting for lightness and consequent fitness for sick or delicate persons.

Turbot, Plaice, Haddock, and Flounders are firmer and tougher than the preceding, and therefore less fit for persons of weak digestion.

Cod and Ling are the toughest white fish. They are preserved, by salting, for winter use, and form a very important item of food to the people of Northern Europe.

Oily Fish is exceedingly wholesome food for people in ordinary health, and the various kinds are extensively used in the districts near the coasts where they are found.

Herrings, when in season, in summer and autumn, are most delicate. It is only because they are plentiful that they are not valued as highly as salmon

The hasty man never wants for woe.

and other more expensive kinds, which they surpass in flavour. The Scotch, availing themselves of the advantages presented by the numerous lochs and firths of their sea-fretted coasts, carry on the herring-fishery with great ardour, and thus provide themselves with a large part of their summer food and an important item of their commerce.

Mackerel is cheap during the summer in the eastern and southern counties of Great Britain; and, when fresh and properly cooked, is most delicate food. Generally, the smaller kind (for there are two, which differ much in size) has the best flavour.

Pilchards supply the people of Devon and Cornwall with a cheap and useful article of diet. They are at times so plentiful in the latter county, as to be used for manure.

Sprats deserve a more important place than is usually given to them in our dietary. They are nutritious and satisfying; and they are in season when herrings and mackerel cannot be obtained.

MILK, ETC,

Milk is the natural food of young animals, and contains, in the right proportions, every substance necessary for the nutrition of the body:—a young child fed entirely on milk, is not only strong and healthy, but grows very quickly. The fat or cream of milk turns to warmth in the body; the sugar does the same; the curd gives substance for muscle or flesh; the whey contains the mineral substances for hardening the soft bone. Thus, an infant has its food ready mixed in due proportion. The nourishment of older children should contain the same substances, mixed in the same proportions:—the warmth will then be supplied by rice, potatoes, bread, sugar, butter, and fat of meat; the muscle by cheese, lean meat, peas, beans, cabbage, and eggs; bone-substance by

Gold may be bought too dear.

oatmeal, coarse bread, and the mineral matters contained in water. The quality of milk depends on the feeding of the cow, provided the animal is healthy. Cows fed in rich pastures generally produce the best.

Skim-milk is nearly as rich in strength-giving substances as that which contains the cream, the latter being simply fat. In Devonshire, however, the milk is heated before the cream rises, and this causes some of the flesh-forming part to mix with the cream; hence, the skim-milk of Devon is not so good as that of other parts, where the cream is allowed to rise cold. Cooked with rice, skim-milk is a very valuable food, the rice supplying the deficiencies of the milk, and *vice versa.* It is also very nourishing if taken with oatmeal.

Butter-milk, which is that left from the cream after the butter is extracted, though not so useful as skim-milk, forms an important article of diet in the agricultural districts of Ireland, Scotland, and the North of England. It has little or no warmth-giving power, and is therefore properly eaten with potatoes or oatmeal.

Cheese is the curd of milk solidified by the addition of a small quantity of acid, and pressed nearly dry. The richest kind, called double Gloucester, is made from new milk to which cream has been added; next comes that made from unskimmed milk, and known as Cheddar, Cheshire, single Gloucester, and American. One kind of Dutch cheese is made of milk from which some of the cream has been taken; another kind, of skim-milk entirely. The last-named kind is quite as rich in strength-giving substances as the first; the difference consists in the presence or absence of cream, which can give only warmth; but the harder kinds are very difficult of digestion. The price of cheese depends on the cream it contains, not on the quantity of curd.

An hour's cold will drive out seven years' heat.

Butter is one of the lightest kinds of animal fat, and turns to warmth in the body very quickly. It helps to form the fluids that dissolve the food, especially the bile; it assists also in building the dissolved food into the tissues of the body, and in turning into waste the substances that are done with. All fat has somewhat the same uses, but butter is the most easily digested, and next to it, fresh olive oil, and dripping.

GRAIN.

The value of grains for breadmaking depends chiefly on the amount of gluten they contain, and the right condition of this gluten. When yeast is mixed with flour or meal and the whole is made into dough and exposed to heat, a kind of gas is formed, which, in trying to escape, causes the dough to swell up or "rise;" this is the process of fermentation. The gluten in the flour is tenacious or sticky, and holds the other substances together, so that the gas cannot get free;—the dough swells, but will not burst; and the gas only forms little holes or cells all through the dough, like the holes in a sponge. After some time the gas does escape, but not until the heat has made the cells so firm that they keep their shape, even though empty.

Dough made from wheat or rye-flour holds well together while the gas is inflating it; oatmeal, though it contains much gluten, contains other substances which counteract its tenacity and prevent the formation of cells; maize (or Indian corn-flour) will not, for the same reason, form cells; and barley-meal is wanting in the gluten that gives this tenacity or cell-forming character.

Wheat contains gluten and albumen, both of which nourish and repair the body, and a large quantity of starch or fuel-food. Some of the flesh-forming substance lies just within the bran or inner husk; fine flour, therefore, does not contain so much of it as the coarse meal from which the bran has not been separated. Yet the bran is itself useless and even hurtful, owing to the flinty particles it contains; and it is necessary to obtain the gluten from it without taking this useless part. This is best done by pouring warm water on the bran to extract the gluten, and using this water in kneading the bread.

The amount of gluten in wheat depends on the warmth of the climate and the nature of the soil where it is grown; the produce of the warm rich plains of Lombardy is the most nourishing kind of European wheat. Flour from new wheat, or from that grown during a wet season or on wet land, never makes light good bread. Good wheat is now grown in many parts of England, which formerly, for want of proper drainage produced only rye or barley; much also is imported from the Continent and the Colonies; hence, wheaten bread, which was formerly eaten exclusively by the rich, has now become the food of nearly all classes.

Rye requires less heat to ripen it than wheat: it is therefore grown in hilly regions and cold climates. It is ten times richer in fuel substance than in flesh-formers, is nearly as nourishing as wheat, and, when fresh and good, makes excellent fermented bread, of a sweet pleasant taste and light brown colour. Instead of yeast it is sometimes made with leaven (a piece of dough that has been kept from the previous baking and has become sour) and subjected to long baking; it then becomes sour, heavy, and of a very dark brown.

Barley differs from wheat in its composition. The flesh-forming part of it consists almost entirely of albumen, which makes it unfit for fermented bread, since it will not "rise" or form into cells during the process of fermentation, but becomes heavy and close

Barley is largely eaten in some agricultural districts in the form of cakes about half-an-inch thick; these are made by mixing the meal with milk or water and baking the dough on a hot-plate over the fire. It is also used for porridge; and, unground, is put into broth, for thickening. As bread, it is not so nourishing as wheat or rye: but it is much cheaper than wheat.

Oats contain more nourishment, and more fat, than ordinary English wheat. As the meal does not hold well together, it is not fit for making fermented bread. Baked in thin cakes, or cooked as porridge, oatmeal forms the bread-food of the agricultural population of Scotland and northern England. It produces warmth in the body sooner than wheat-flour, and hence appears peculiarly adapted to the dwellers in the humid chilly air of Scotland. It is found too dry and heating for most people in England; but this may be owing to a wrong admixture of other food, since children in this country, fed upon oatmeal and plenty of nourishing soup, are strong and healthy.

Preparations of Grain.—These are among the many varieties that have been added to the food of English people through their intercourse with other countries. Maccaroni, vermicelli, and semolina are dried paste, made from the finest Italian wheat, and containing a large quantity of gluten. The first two are shaped by forcing the paste, while moist, through holes in a sieve; the last is formed into grains instead of tubes or threads. Any of these substances may be baked with milk, or put into soup; maccaroni is frequently baked with grated cheese.

Sago, Tapioca, and Arrowroot are also foreign productions, which may be used in the preparation of sweet or savoury dishes, for thickening soup, or, with milk and eggs, for making light puddings. They are pure starch, and therefore of no use as nourishment; but are useful as warmth-givers when used in combination with other things. Arrowroot is obtained from the tuberous roots of a plant growing chiefly in the West Indies. A variety called English arrowroot, less fit for invalids, because less digestible, is made from the potato.

Tapioca, a very similar product, is prepared by baking on hot plates. Sago is a starch obtained from the pith of a kind of palm, by washing the stem, drying the sediment thus procured, and granulating it.

CHAPTER XXVI.

ECONOMY OF FOOD (continued,)

BEVERAGES.

A large quantity of liquid is required to dissolve and mix the food, to transport it along the arteries when it is ready to feed the body, to carry worn-off particles through the veins, and to bring other waste portions up to the surface through the pores of the skin. Water is the natural solvent and carrier, and is supplied either pure, or in the form of soup, or tea, coffee, beer, wine or other beverages; a small quantity is absorbed from the atmosphere by breathing, and some through the skin in bathing and washing.

Water.—Hard water is the best for drinking, because it contains carbonic acid and some of the mineral substances, such as carbonate and phosphate of lime, necessary for the sustenance of the body. These substances, too, render it sparkling and refreshing; rain-water, which does not contain them, is flat and insipid; —it is, in fact, condensed steam. In large towns people are afraid to drink much water, because it is rendered unwholesome by receiving refuse and sewage, or the surface-drainage from houses and farm yards. To obviate the great dangers arising from drinking such water, a filter should be used. Filters of ordinary make allow the water to strain slowly through a sponge, a layer of sand, and a bed of charcoal. The sponge arrests the larger pieces of animal or vegetable matter; the layer of sand clears the water of minute impurities; the charcoal renders harmless any poisonous gas it may contain. (A.)

Tea is in common use throughout England, Holland, and Russia; in Asia, from the Ural Mountains to China, it is the favourite drink; in South America, a variety called Paraguay tea is largely consumed; and the North American Indians use two or three kinds. It is said to be the beverage of half the people of the globe; and where it is not used, its place is taken by coffee or cocoa, which contain the same substances, and perform the same work in the body.

The beverage is made from the leaves of a plant of the camelia kind; they are gathered when young, and dried on wire sieves over charcoal. These leaves contain a white powder called theine, which gives the tea its peculiar value, since it has the power of feeding and restoring, in a very short time, the brain and other nerves. The student, who has worn his mental powers by thinking, is refreshed for further work in a few minutes after taking a good cup of tea;—the invalid who in pain and weariness has passed a sleepless night, is soothed in the early morning by the same friendly draught, so that he falls into a quiet slumber; the intelligent artisan, or clerk, whose brain is exercised in his work, looks forward to his afternonn cup to refresh him so that he can enjoy his evening leisure for reading or other intellectual pursuits; the poor seamstress, knowing that it will relieve her racking headache and steady her trembling hand, prefers it to more nourishing food; while to the old and infirm it is especially comforting, and even necessary, since it not only feeds the brain, and so enlivens the nervous system, but is believed also to prevent waste in the body. Tea may be taken to excess, however. It then stimulates too much, producing after-depression, languor, debility, and a feeling of misery;—produces, in fact, the very complaints it should cure. Half an ounce of good tea contains quite as much nerve-food as one person should take in a day.

The white crystals are extracted by merely pouring boiling water on the leaves; by boiling, or adding soda, flesh-forming substances are extracted, similar to those found in pulse, and besides these a strong astringent substance is obtained, which gives the tea a peculiar rough flavour. When once-used tea-leaves are boiled, as they sometimes are by the poor, no nerve-food is obtained from them; it has all been taken out by the previous steeping.

Coffee is preferred to tea by the French, Germans, and Swedes; while to the Turks, Arabs, and Persians, whose religion prohibits the use of fermented liquors, it is the daily and indispensable beverage. It is made from the ground seed of an evergreen shrub which grows best in Brazil, Jamaica, Arabia, and Ceylon. Its refreshing power greatly depends on an extremely volatile oil, which is drawn out by roasting and crushing the berry, and by the action of boiling water, but is entirely driven off by boiling. It is necessary to keep coffee closely covered in order to prevent the escape of this oil. The white crystalline powder which answers to that in tea, and possesses the same nerve-feeding properties, is called cafeine; it is present in about half the proportion in which it is found in tea, and hence we find it necessary to use twice the bulk of coffee to obtain the same amount of nourishment for the brain. The flesh-forming substances in coffee are more than those in tea; hence it is often and wisely preferred as a breakfast beverage by persons who have to perform manual labour. It also contains a strong astringent acid; which, however, is not extracted unless the coffee is boiled.

Cocoa, prepared as chocolate by the admixture of spice and other flavouring, is the beverage of Spain and Italy; it is also largely used in France, England, and America. It is made from the seeds of an evergreen tree, bearing a large fruit somewhat resembling a vegetable marrow in structure; these seeds are dried in the sun and roasted like coffee. Cocoa-nibs are the kernels of the seeds freed from their husk or shell.

Cocoa contains the same kind of nerve-food as tea, and, it is said, in equal quantity. In this particular plant it is called theobromine. The chief characteristic of cocoa is, that it contains about half its weight of rich vegetable fat, which has the same effect as butter. The quantity of pure cocoa necessary to yield the amount of nerve-substance usually taken at a meal, would contain more of this oily matter than could be easily digested, and for this reason, it is usually mixed or diluted with starch, sugar, and other substances. When the cocoa-nibs are boiled and the decoction drunk with milk, the solid portion of the seed is not taken into the body, and the cocoa thus made is therefore not so rich as when the nibs are ground and mixed into a thin paste with boiling water. The thickening of cocoa when boiling water is added to it, is due to the presence of starchy substances, purposely mixed with it.

Cocoa is suitable for those who have hard manual labour to perform; tea is best for persons who are employed in sedentary occupations or have much mental work. Neither tea, coffee, nor cocoa is good for children; all such drinks are too stimulating.

It must be remembered that the warmth of these beverages is in itself valuable, as it raises the temperature of the body, and helps digestion.

Beer contains carbonic acid, which gives the sharp taste, and produces the bubbles we call froth. It also contains spirit or alcohol, produced from the sugar contained in the malt from which the beer is made. The spirit and carbonic acid are evolved during the process of fermentation. A small portion of sugar, which has not been acted upon by the fermentation, more or less of a kind of gum called dextrin (also derived from the malt), and a little of the flesh-forming substance of the grain, called albumen, are also found in beer. Its stimulating power depends upon the quantity of spirit it contains.

Spirits contain no food substance. Whisky and gin are made by fermenting liquor in which barley or other grain has been steeped, and afterwards boiling it. The steam, caught and condensed, contains the spirit of alcohol which was in the liquor, the gum and flesh-forming substances being left behind. Rum is made in the same way from sugar, or treacle and water, fermented; and brandy, from wine.

Wine is simply the fermented juice of grapes. Sherry and port are freed from the carbonic acid produced by fermentation. In effervescing wines, such as champagne, the carbonic acid is retained.

Use of Stimulating Beverages.—A pint of milk contains more nourishment than a pint of strong beer; but its effects are not so quickly felt as those of strong beer, owing to the absence of the spirit or alcohol, which stimulates the nerves, and makes them act on the digestive organs. It must be remembered that stimulating the system makes it work, for the time, beyond its strength, only to render it afterwards weaker from over-exertion; just as a horse may be spurred to run a race or bear a load beyond his powers, but will then sink down and die from exhaustion. The use of alcohol to the body has not yet been fully decided. It is undoubtedly of use as a medicine, when the vital powers are at a low ebb, and need urging to perform the functions necessary for nourishment; but it is treacherous and dangerous. It is extensively consumed, because it gives warmth and energy almost instantaneously, by stimulating the nerves, which, in their turn, rouse the organs to increased and unnatural activity. Its rapid effect tempts people to use it; they forget the subsequent languor and depression, which will cause a craving for more of the stimulant, till, as larger and larger quantities are required to produce the effect, the delicate animal organism breaks down from being spurred beyond endurance.

CHAPTER XXVII.

ECONOMY OF FOOD (continued.)

CONDIMENTS.

Condiments are substances used in small quantities to flavour and season food, and to increase the relish for it by making it palatable. The chief condiments are salt, pepper, mustard, spices.

Salt might be reckoned almost as a food rather than a condiment. Its extensive distribution in the earth and the ocean seems to show that, like water, it is universally necessary. It is the mineral substance most abundantly found in the body; and if the blood does not contain a certain quantity, the body is imperfectly nourished, and there is an intense craving for it. It is believed that salt helps to dissolve nitrogenous foods (gluten, albumen, &c.), to reduce them to a state in which they can be absorbed, and to assist in the conversion of unused substances into waste. It is composed of an acid (hydrochloric) and an alkali (soda): the acid helps to form the gastric fluid of the stomach, the alkali provides the bile secreted by the liver; and as both these fluids are most important to digestion, salt becomes an absolute necessity of life. Even the lower animals instinctively seek it; a horse or cow will eagerly lick up a handful of it; and in America troops of wild animals frequent the salt-licks, or exposed patches of rock-salt.

This substance is also most useful, from its powers of drawing out the flavour of food, and of preventing putrefaction.

Pepper is the dried unripe fruit of a climbing plant of the tropical islands of Asia; when the fruit is allowed to ripen, the outer dark-coloured husk is easily washed off, and it is then known as white pepper. It owes its pungent properties to the presence of an oil, which is highly volatile. Much of this oil flies off when the husk is removed and the fruit ground; hence, white pepper is less strong than black; and either kind, but especially the white, requires to be kept in closely-stopped vessels to preserve the flavour.

Mustard is the ground seed of an English plant. Like pepper, it owes its peculiar pungency to a volatile oil, and is used to stimulate the digestive organs to extra activity.

Cayenne Pepper is the most pungent of all the condiments. It is prepared from the dried fruit of

Deny yourself, for your own sake.

the capsicum, and takes its name from Cayenne, in South America, whence it was first brought.

Curry Powder is a mixture of fragrant and very pungent condiments, (chiefly Cayenne pepper, turmeric, and ginger), which flavours food very highly. Its use has been brought to us from India; where, the climate rendering exercise almost impossible, the digestive organs of Europeans become too weak and sluggish to act upon the animal food to which they are accustomed.

Spices.—Cloves, cinnamon, mace, nutmeg, ginger, and allspice, are used rather for their delicate flavour than for their pungent or stimulative qualities. The use of combinations of cloves and mace for flavouring stews of various kinds is not sufficiently appreciated.

Cloves are the dried buds of a kind of myrtle, growing in the Moluccas. Nutmeg is the fruit of an East Indian shrub; mace a kind of network that surrounds it. Cinnamon is the inner bark of the laurel of Ceylon. Allspice is the berry of the pimento-tree of the West Indies.

Ginger is the root-stock of a tropical herb.

Vinegar may be classed among the condiments, since it is used to season food and to aid digestion. Its action on the digestive organs is different from that of pepper and other pungent spices; it does not irritate the coat of the stomach, but aids in the formation of the acid, or gastric fluid, by which the flesh-forming substances are dissolved: for this reason it is generally eaten with raw vegetables, salad, and shell-fish, which are all difficult of digestion. In conjunction with heat, it softens the lean fibre of meat; therefore it is well to steep tough meat in vinegar before roasting or stewing. It has also the power of arresting decay in animal and vegetable substances; hence, it is used for pickling fish and

Never buy a pig in a poke.

vegetables; and meat that has begun to putrefy may be restored and made quite free from taint by being washed in it.

Vinegar is made by fermentation from any kind of sugar. That known as malt vinegar is obtained by allowing the fermentation of the wort to go on until the sugar of the malt is quite decomposed, instead of checking it by corking in air-tight barrels, as for beer. Vinegar can be obtained from fermented grapes, in the same way. As that purchased at shops is often adulterated with sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol) it is best to make it at home, which is easily done (A.)

CHAPTER XXVIII.

STORING.

Every housekeeper should understand how to store such articles of food or of domestic use as can be kept. Most things are cheaper when bought in large quantities; time is saved by avoiding the necessity of running out for everything that is wanted; variety and an air of plenty are given to the diet; and much pleasure and interest are added to the work of housekeeping, by having close around, the matters required for constant use. About the economy of the plan there can be no doubt; it is well-known that poor people, who are obliged to purchase in small quantities, pay most dearly for their goods. Take, for example, tea at three-and-sixpence a pound. The price of an ounce is between two-pence half-penny and two-pence three-farthings; but the shopkeeper is obliged to charge the latter sum to those who buy only the small quantity; and the cost of half-an-ounce is still higher in proportion.

Falsehood always makes a bad end.

As a rule, storing requires a cool dry room or cupboard, with a fair amount of air, and little light. Different articles require somewhat different treatment; but care must be taken to prevent the smell or flavour of one being imparted to another. Soap and cheese are instances of articles that are likely to spoil other things in this way; tea, coffee, and spice are instances of those which lose their flavour entirely, unless kept in tightly closed vessels, either made of glass or lined with lead.

Flour and Oatmeal should be purchased by the sack. They require to be kept in a wooden bin or closely-covered barrel in a dry place; otherwise they absorb moisture from the atmosphere and acquire a musty flavour, the result of a growth of fungus or "mould."

Scotch or Pearl Barley requires to be kept in the same way, for the same reason.

Potatoes may be purchased, at the time they are being dug for storing, at a much cheaper rate than afterwards. Several sacks should be bought, and stored during the winter months in a dry dark cellar; they must be carefully kept from frost, and should they begin to grow, the sprouts must be nipped off.

Summer Cabbages of the larger kind may be preserved by burying in pits dug in the garden. The light being excluded from them, they are quite white when taken up for winter use. They make excellent soup.

Turnips may be kept on the floor of a cellar, like potatoes.

Carrots and Parsnips can be preserved for winter use by being buried in damp sand.

Onions should be purchased in the autumn, and placed in a dark cellar; care must be taken that they do not touch each other.

Fortune favours the brave.

Herbs for flavouring should also be laid in during the autumn. Tho leaves should be picked off, thoroughly dried, and kept in well-stopped bottles.

Apples should be placed on a little straw on a dry floor or shelf, and must not be allowed to touch each other. The best for winter use aro russets.

Rhubarb should be preserved with coarse sugar and pieces of ginger. It is best for this purpose in the summer-time, when it is plentiful and not so watery as in the spring, and if well prepared makes an excellent preserve. Vegetable-marrow can be treated in the same way, the seeds and rind being removed.

Gooseberries may be preserved as jam or jelly, or bottled, while green, for winter use in pies and puddings. Other fruit can be similarly treated.

Eggs are easily kept for a long time in a jar filled with lime-water.

Pork may be bought in good quantities, and salted and cured at home. This is not a difficult process, and the bacon costs less than that bought ready-cured.

Butter is richer, better, and cheaper in summer than in winter. A quantity sufficient to last three or four months should be purchased in summer, mixed well with salt, and closely packed in a wooden tub or earthenware jar; if carefully kept, it will be better than any that can be bought in the depth of winter. If it should be too salt to the taste, it may be kneaded in plenty of cold water to remove some of the salt.

Dripping should be clarified by pouring it into boiling water; the fat forms a cake on the surface, and may be lifted out, leaving the pieces of skin or fibre at the bottom. It may also be melted and strained. All pieces of fat should be turned into dripping by melting in a jar in a moderate oven and straining off into another jar.

Heaven arms the harmless.

Salt is best kept in a wooden box, as the acid it contains would corrode metal. The box should hang near the kitchen fire, or the salt will absorb damp from the atmosphere, and become coarse.

Soda contains a great deal of water, which easily evaporates:—to prevent this, it should be kept in a closed jar of glazed earthenware.

Soap should be purchased by the bar, and cut into pieces of convenient size with a thin string; a knife, unless exceedingly thin, wastes it. The pieces should then be placed on a shelf to dry; it will thus last longer than if used while soft. The scraps of soap should be regularly gathered from the washstands and scullery, to be kept until washing-day for boiling in the copper.

Candles also last longer when hard, and must therefore be kept in a cool place. A tin box is the best thing to keep them in; if hung up, they become soft, dirty, and often broken.

CHAPTER XXIX.

COOKING.

The object of cooking is to change into wholesome nourishment substances that would otherwise be useless, and thus to economise food. So much of health of body and mind, and so much of the comfort of the household, depend on good cooking,—so much intelligence and education can be brought into use by it,—that it ought never to be left to the care or carelessness of an ignorant servant; it is worthy of the attention of the clever and cultivated women of the family. The cook who sees clearly the object of her work, and understands the nature of the substances she has to deal with, is to some extent a chemist; the saucepans are her crucibles; the kitchen is her laboratory, where she changes the food-substances from their raw and insoluble state into different substances or different forms, capable of being dissolved by the stomach as sugar is dissolved in tea, and built up into the living tissues of the body.

Food may contain a great deal of nourishing substance, but if this is in an insoluble state, it is utterly wasted; because the digestive powers, however hard they may work, cannot dissolve and absorb them. Take, for example, a raw potato, which is chiefly composed of starch; scrape it into water, and the grains of starch will fall to the bottom, but will not melt and mix with the water as sugar would do;—the starch is insoluble. If the potato were eaten raw, the digestive fluids would turn a few grains of the starch into sugar, which could be dissolved and absorbed; but by far the greater portion would remain insoluble, and therefore would not be taken into the tissues of the body. But when the potato is cooked, the heat nearly converts all the starch into sugar;—so nearly, that the stomach can easily finish the process; and the tissues can then take in their food, because it is in a fluid state. The starch in flour or meal, like that in potatoes, is, by cooking, rendered digestible; that is, it is reduced so nearly to the sugary or soluble state that the digestive fluids can finish the work. When bread, puddings, or potatoes are only half-baked or half-boiled, they give scarcely any real food to the body, however much may be eaten.

Other substances, besides starch, are affected by cooking, but often in different ways. Albumen is a flesh-forming substance, found nearly pure in the white of an egg. When the egg is raw, the albumen is soluble in warm water; but when fried, or boiled for ten minutes, it becomes insoluble.

Some vegetables contain matters which, though necessary in the plant, are unwholesome or unpalatable as food. Cooking often gets rid of these. In the potato there is a poisonous juice, which escapes into the water in which they are boiled, or evaporates in baking. The disagreeable, though not poisonous, substance in cabbage can be easily perceived in the water used for cooking. Knowing this, a sensible cook will boil these vegetables in plenty of water, and then drain them as dry as possible.

Meat should be allowed to hang as long as possible before it is cooked; if used too soon after it is killed, it is tough and indigestible. In cooking it, the objects in view are:—to solidify the albumen, so that instead of being soft, as when raw, the meat may be firm enough to carve; to retain the nutritive juices; to make the fibres tender; to render soft the tendonous portion and the tissues between the fibres; to melt superabundant fat; and to develope the flavour, if agreeable, or to reduce it, if too strong. When meat is subjected to too high a temperature, changes are made in it which produce unpleasant flavours: this is proved when frying or roasting is performed by a too-hot fire.

Roasting is suitable for large joints of tender meat containing plenty of fat. It is the mode of cooking which best develops the flavour of the meat, rendering it savoury and pleasant; and from the earliest ages, it has been the favourite mode of dressing flesh. In roasting, a pound of good meat loses five-and-a-half ounces of its weight.

To perform the operation well, the joint must be hung before a clear brisk fire, so that the fibres may contract at once and close the pores, preventing the escape of the juices. It is the albumen that produces the glaze on the outside of roast meat; unless this glaze is quickly formed, the juices escape, and the meat becomes insipid and soft. After the coating is formed, the joint must be drawn back from the fire, so that the heat may penetrate to the inner fibre, without burning the outside. During the roasting process, the meat should be pretty frequently basted with the dripping that has fallen; this prevents burning and over-hardness of the outside.

When the meat is served the dripping must be kept back, to be clarified for use in frying, or for mixing in the crusts of pies, in cakes, &c. From fifteen to twenty minutes' roasting will be required for every pound of meat, according to the total weight of the joint, the amount of fat, and the taste of those for whom it is prepared.

Baking is similar to roasting, if carefully done. There must be, however, a valve in the oven, to permit the escape of steam; or the outside cannot become crisp, and the meat, losing its juice, is rendered soft and tasteless. The melted fat, too, is liable to be heated too highly in the oven; this causes a change in it which developes a strong disagreeable flavour, that quite overpowers the more delicate flavour of the meat, and causes it to disagree with delicate persons. Baking is, on the whole, not so dainty a mode of cooking as roasting; but it requires less attention.

The loss of weight per pound in baking is about half-an-ounce less than in roasting: this is chiefly because the vapour cannot escape so easily from an oven as from the open fire, therefore, baked meat contains more water than that which is roasted. The dripping obtained in baking has frequently a strong burnt flavour, and is consequently not so useful.

Boiling is more economical than either roasting or baking; it requires less fuel and labour, while the meat

While there is life, there is hope.

loses only five ounces from each pound, and is rendered very digestible. No dripping is obtained from boiled joints, but excellent soup may be made from the liquid in which they are cooked. The flesh of young animals loses much of its bulk in boiling, because the albumen and fibrin, of which young tissues are largely composed, are dissolved into the water. For insipid joints, boiling is unsuitable, the flavour of the meat not being developed as in roasting.

In order to prevent the escape of the juices, the meat should be plunged into boiling water to contract the fibres and harden the outside albumen. Some people cover, with a thin crust of dough, the lean part of a joint which is not protected by the skin, and tie the whole tightly in a cloth; the juices which escape pass into this crust, which forms an excellent pudding with the meat; but the liquor from the meat thus cooked, containing none of its juices or flavour. is useless for soup-making. After the joint is plunged into the boiling water, the pot or saucepan should be drawn to the side of the fire, that the water may only simmer slowly; rapid boiling renders the fibre hard and indigestible. During the cooking, the scum which rises to the top must be removed.

If the object is to have the meat good, fifteen minutes' boiling must be allowed for every pound; the liquid will be somewhat poor, but will make excellent soup with the addition of vegetables. If the object is to obtain all the juices of the meat in order to make very nourishing soup, the joint must be put into cold water, and allowed to simmer for a long time; the liquid is then very rich, but the meat is dry, insipid, and almost useless as food.

Stewing is the most economical method of cooking. It consists in subjecting the meat to moderate

He will soon be a beggar that cannot say "No."

heat for many hours, with little moisture other than its own juices; the little water that is used forms the gravy of the stew. By this plan, the gelatine is extracted from the bones, the albumen is dissolved, the juices are drawn out to form the gravy, and the tendonous parts are rendered soft and digestible. The fat can be skimmed off, and used for other purposes.

Very little fuel, very little trouble, and only the simplest utensils are necessary in order to stew meat properly. An earthenware jar with a close-fitting lid may be purchased for less than a shilling, and will make a capital stew-pot:—a proper stew-pan is very shallow, is lined with enamel, and has a close-fitting lid. Into this jar or pan tough pieces of meat, meat-trimmings, and bones are thrown, with as little fat as possible: the bones should be broken first. A few pepper-corns and one or two cloves may be added to give flavour. The jar must be tightly closed with the lid, or covered with a piece of strong paper firmly tied down; then it should be placed in a moderately warm oven and left for some hours; it is best to put it in after one day's dinner and leave it all night. When it is wanted for dinner it should be turned out into a stewpan or saucepan, thickened with a little flour, and seasoned. Where there is no oven, the jar may be kept at the required heat by standing it beside the fire.

Stewing or soup-making should be going on every day, or much good food will be wasted. The hardest and coarsest parts of meat make excellent stews, and bones can be divested of their nourishment in no other manner. A cupful of stock from a stew, added to a little dripping well fried and thickened, together with a few onions and other vegetables cut small, forms the basis of a good soup; boiling water must be added as required, and the whole boiled for an hour.

No meat can be properly stewed in less than eight hours:—the tendonous portions need twice that time.

Grilling, or cooking on a gridiron, above the fire, requires great skill and quickness, a clear fire, and tender meat. Like roasting, this method developes the flavour of the meat and retains its nutriment;—that is, if the operation is properly carried out. The chop or steak (the kinds of meat for which grilling is best) must be often turned over during the cooking, to prevent the escape of the juice; for the same reason, a fork must never be inserted, at least into the lean part. Care is required to prevent the fat from burning, and imparting to the meat a disagreeable taste that will quite overpower the pleasantness of the flavour.

Broiling.—This term is sometimes applied to grilling; but it is, strictly, the cooking of a slice of meat by hanging it in front of the fire. It is suitable for bacon, very fat meat, and oily fish, because it allows the melted fat to drain away without burning. Hanging gridirons, and Dutch and American ovens, are made purposely for this kind of cooking.

Frying is an expeditious method of cooking, and on this account very general. It is, however, seldom done properly, the fat being almost always allowed to get too hot and so give a flavour to the meat, particularly obnoxious to persons of weak digestion. Frying really consists in cooking the food in boiling fat, which, being much hotter than boiling water, has a different effect on it. As applied to meat, it is a thriftless and objectionable way of cooking, because it hardens the fibre and is likely to burn the fat.

The flesh of young animals contains but little albumen to form a coating and retain the juices:—for this reason, veal cutlets and lamb chops are dipped in white of egg and fried. The egg hardens and forms the required covering, and the meat being exceedingly tender, bears the frying process better than any other animal food. Bread-crumbs are added to the egg, to give a pleasant crispness.

Vegetable foods containing starch are rendered very palatable by frying, and digestible if properly cooked.

CHAPTER XXX.

COOKING VEGETABLES.

Potatoes may be cooked in several ways, with or without their skins; it is economical to peel them after boiling, but they cannot then be served so hot as if peeled first. Baked in their skins, they are very good with cold meat, or with a little butter;—it is of course necessary to wash and scrub them thoroughly before cooking. New potatoes must be scrubbed, and the thin skin scraped off, or rubbed off with a coarse towel; old ones must be thinly pared with a small knife, and all the specks and "eyes" cut out.

To Boil Potatoes, wash or peel them and put them into a saucepan with sufficient cold water to cover them. Salt should be dissolved in the water in the proportion of a dessert-spoonful to a quart. Let them boil up quickly, and then simmer gently at the side of the fire; if allowed to boil quickly, they break,—if not kept at boiling point, they become heavy and watery. When soft (which may be found by trying with a fork), drain off the water, and let them stand five minutes beside the fire to dry, with the lid of the saucepan slightly tilted, to allow the

Ill-will never speaks well.

steam to escape; then turn them into a hot vegetable-dish, and put on the lid so as to leave an outlet for the steam. If well cooked, they will look like balls of flour, and the starch-granules will be distinctly seen.

New potatoes must be put into boiling water with salt and a leaf of mint. Boiling is the only practicable method of cooking them.

In Steaming Potatoes, be specially careful that the water is boiling when the potatoes are put into the steamer, and that it is kept boiling quickly; otherwise they will be watery or "soapy."

Mashing Potatoes is performed after they have been boiled or steamed without the skin. To a common vegetable-dishful, add a piece of butter as large as a walnut, and a little salt; beat them quite smooth with a wooden spoon or mortar, put them in a hot dish, and serve. Three or four table-spoonfuls of milk may be used instead of the butter or in addition to it. Very old potatoes are best when mashed.

To Fry Potatoes, pare them and cut them in thin slices. Throw these into a frying-pan half-full of hot dripping over a slow clear fire; let them boil in the dripping for fifteen minutes; then remove them with a wire strainer or slice to free them from fat, sprinkle a little salt over them, and serve. Cold potatoes may be re-cooked by frying with a minced onion, and a little pepper and salt; but for this, only a small quantity of dripping is required:—a piece of the size of a small egg is sufficient for a frying-pan full of potatoes.

Potato-Pie is a very savoury dish, which children generally like. Pare four or five pounds of potatoes, cut them in halves; put them in a large pie-dish or baking-dish, with a pound of fat mutton cuttings, and a large onion in slices. Mix these together, sprinkle with a little salt and pepper, fill the dish with cold water, and bake in a quick oven for an hour and a half or two hours.

Potatoes are the chief constituent of Irish stew; and they also make good soup.

To Cook Greens, of all kinds except spinach, take off all faded leaves, and as much of the stalk as possible; if the stem is thick, cut the remaining part of it across and across. Let them lie in strong salt and water for ten minutes to free them from insects; then wash them in plenty of water and place them to drain in a colander. Throw them into a saucepan of boiling water in which have been dissolved a piece of soda the size of a hazel nut, and salt in the proportion of a dessert-spoonful to a quart. Keep the saucepan uncovered, and boiling fast. When the greens are tender drain them in a colander, and press out as much water as possible.

Cauliflowers and Brocoli are treated in much the same way as greens; but they should be kept in the cold salt water for an hour with the flower downwards, and, as they require to be kept whole, should not be pressed in the colander. In order to preserve the whiteness of the flower, the water should be skimmed during the boiling. Melted butter is served with them.

Spinach is a very wholesome vegetable, much more watery than greens of the cabbage kind, and free from the peculiar strong acrid principle which gives "green-water" its disagreeable smell and taste. Hence, but little water is used in boiling it; half a pint is sufficient for a large saucepanful. As the water is drawn from the spinach by the heat, the vegetable shrinks greatly in cooking. Two table-spoonfuls of salt should be added to the half pint of water for cooking, and after fifteen minutes' boiling, the spinach

Still waters run deep.

should be squeezed tightly in a colander, chopped fine, stirred in a small saucepan with pepper, salt, and a piece of butter, and served in a vegetable dish with strips of toast laid round it. If desired, slices of egg, very hard-boiled, may be laid on the top. Spinach is particularly suitable for eating with roast mutton or beef.

Green Peas should be shelled, washed, drained, and thrown into boiling water, to which have been added a few leaves of mint, salt in the same proportion as for greens, and a salt-spoonful of moist sugar to each quart:—soda must not be used unless the peas are very old. They must boil quickly, with the saucepan-lid tilted, and when soft, be drained, and served in a hot dish, with a piece of butter in the centre.

French and Scarlet Beans are eaten with their pods. Cut off the stalk and strip off the stringy portion that lies between the divisions of the pod; cut the whole pod into five or six strips in a slanting direction, and wash them in cold water. After this, they are boiled in the same way as green peas, and served with a small tureen of melted butter.

Broad Beans are cooked in the same way as peas. They are best eaten with bacon or pork.

Dried Haricot Beans are a variety of the kidney bean, not so well known as they deserve to be. Take a quart, which will cost about fourpence, and put them in cold water to soak all night. Put them into cold water with salt, and bring them slowly to boiling point. Let them simmer gently till soft; then drain away the water, and stand them to dry beside the fire, with the saucepan-lid partly off. Shake them about with pepper, salt, and a little butter, and serve.

Split Peas are eaten with boiled beef and pork.

A pint should be washed, and put to soak over-night; then tied rather loosely in a cloth, and put into the water (the same in which the meat is to be boiled) while it is cold. Bring the water to the boiling-point before putting in the meat. When the peas have boiled for three hours, put them in a large hot pudding-basin, add salt and pepper, and beat them with the potato-masher until they form a smooth mass. Serve in a very hot vegetable dish.

For those who have to do very laborious work, a savoury and exceedingly nourishing dish is produced by cooking a pint of peas, soaked over-night, in an earthenware jar with half a pint of water, and a pound of bacon or fat pork cut in thin slices. The jar must be closely covered, and placed in a moderate oven for three hours.

Turnips are excellent with roast or boiled mutton. They may be boiled with the meat; their flavour improves it, and the liquor will make good soup next day. After paring, the large white turnips should be cut in quarters; the small yellow variety may be cooked whole. Throw them into boiling water, cook till soft, and drain them by squeezing in a colander: put them into a small saucepan and beat them quite smooth; add salt, pepper, and a piece of butter of the size of a small egg, or a table-spoonful of cream. Stir them over the fire till thoroughly hot, and serve them in a very hot dish.

Carrots are generally eaten with boiled beef. They are washed, scraped, and if large cut lengthwise into two or four pieces: then put into the water wherein the meat is already boiling, cooked till tender, drained, and placed as a garnishing round the meat.

Parsnips are usually eaten with salt fish, or with boiled pork or beef. They are cooked in the samo way as carrots; but, if boiled with the meat, plenty

Do not cry before you are hurt.

of water must be used, or the joint must be boiled in a cloth; otherwise it will be too strongly flavoured by them.

Onions are baked or boiled. If they are to be baked, put them unpeeled into boiling water with a dessert-spoonful of salt to each quart, and let them boil for an hour with the saucepan-lid slightly tilted;—take them out, dry them, and bake for two hours. A piece of thin white paper laid on the top prevents the outside becoming scorched. They should be served in their skins, and eaten with butter, pepper, and salt. Their peculiar sweetness is developed by baking.

To stew them, they must be put into a stewpan, with two ounces of butter or dripping and a tea-spoonful of salt, stewed slowly till tender, and served with the gravy made in the cooking.

Spanish onions are sold at three-halfpence or two-pence a pound: the English variety is cheaper. Either kind is a savoury accompaniment to roast mutton; or alone, forms a good winter supper dish.

Young Turnips, Carrots, and Green Peas, may be used all the summer to make Hotch-potch. The vegetables, then very young and small, are cut into thin slices and stewed with cuttings of veal or mutton in small pieces. Four or five young carrots, the same number of turnips, and a pint of peas should be stewed slowly with a pound (or less) of meat, in a quart of water for two hours. Pepper, salt, and a dessert-spoonful of flour mixed smooth in a table-spoonful of water, must be added ten minutes before the stew is required for table; the whole must then be boiled up, so as to become quite thick.

The comforter's head never aches

CHAPTER XXXI.

PUDDINGS AND PASTRY.

Puddings are of two kinds:—those made of flour in the form of dough or batter, and those made of milk thickened with rice, sago, or other starchy substances.

Boiled Flour Puddings are made by mixing dry flour with suet in the proportion of about a quarter of a pound of the latter to a pound of the former then kneading it with a spoon very lightly, with just enough water to form a mass. Suet is the only fat suitable for a boiled pudding-crust, and it should be very finely shredded or chopped.

Dough for puddings must be mixed with the least possible amount of handling, or it will be heavy and tough; and where it is necessary to roll it out, as for a jam or apple pudding, it should be rolled only once. The ingredients of a plum or suet pudding should be lightly drawn together with a spoon, and lifted into the pudding-cloth without being touched at all by the fingers.

To prevent puddings from sticking to the cloth, dip the latter in boiling water, let it drain a few minutes, and then flour it thoroughly. Tie the pudding up closely, and be sure that the water is boiling rapidly, before putting it in; and when cooked, plunge it for a few seconds into cold water before untying.

Plum and meat puddings should be boiled in a well greased basin, to preserve the flavours and juices: suet and plain raisin-puddings are lighter when boiled in the cloth only, and their lightness may be increased by adding a cupful of finely-crumbled bread to the flour.

Batter-pudding is made by adding a cupful of flour to a pint of milk and two eggs well beaten, and

He who endures, overcomes

beating the mixture with a wooden spoon till it is like very smooth thick cream. A little salt should be added. Eggs may be saved by the use of half a tea-spoonful of baking powder, which is generally a combination of tartaric acid, carbonate of soda, and ground rice. Suet and batter puddings, if not eaten with the meat, require sweet sauce or preserved fruit.

Milk Puddings are lighter then those of dough, consequently better for invalids. The use of eggs in their composition, though common, is unnecessary. The best milk-puddings for family use are made by putting a small tea-cupful of rice, tapioca, or sago, with a large spoonful of sugar, into three pints of milk, and letting the whole cook very slowly in the oven for four or five hours. Where fuel is dear, or the oven cannot be used, the rice, sugar and milk can be put into a closed jar, and the jar stood in a saucepan of water and allowed to simmer beside the fire for the same time. Where, as in towns, milk is very expensive, half milk and half water may be used with rice, and the pudding served with sweet sauce. Flavour may be given, if desired, by a little spice in the pudding, or by a glass of sherry in the sauce.

Pie-crust is best made by the use of a mixture of butter and lard, or lard and dripping: butter makes the best crusts, but it is too expensive for family use. Lard and butter should be used for fruit tarts; dripping is suitable for meat pies. Mutton dripping is likely to have a strong taste, and is on that account less useful for pastry than that obtained from beef: it should be used up for other purposes; or, to take away its unpleasantness in some degree, a pinch of baking-powder should be put in the dough.

Paste for pie-crust is of two kinds;—short, and flaked or puff.

Wranglers never want words.

Short Crust is made by rubbing lard, butter, or dripping into the flour before kneading with the water; or by melting the fat, adding very little water, and mixing it with the flour.

Puff Paste is formed by rubbing only a small portion of the fat in with the flour, mixing it into a mass with water, rolling it out thin, spreading the fat on it as butter is laid on bread, rolling it up, so that the fat is between layers of dough, and lastly, rolling it out again to the required thickness. This spreading and rolling may be repeated, according to the degree of richness required, but more fat must be spread each time. This kind of dough is best when made a day before it is baked.

BREAD.

Home-made bread is not only more substantial and satisfying than that purchased from the baker, but cheaper and less likely to be adulterated. To render it good, the flour must be sound; if damp, or made from wheat recently cut, imperfectly ripened, or newly ground, the bread fails to afford the due amount of nutriment; and the same result is produced if the dough is allowed to ferment too long. The yeast must be fresh, or it will make the bread sour; and it must be mixed with water only warm, not hot, as scalded yeast will never make dough rise. Brewers' yeast is sometimes very bitter; German dried yeast (a solidified kind produced in the making of Hollands gin) is not always to be obtained; it is well, therefore, to make the yeast at home, which is easily done and ensures very sweet bread. The dough must be well kneaded, and allowed to rise properly before baking. The oven must be brisk, but not hot enough to scorch the outside of the loaf, and its heat must be slackened during the last half-hour of baking:—it is important, too, to keep the oven-door shut during the first half-hour. Two hours will suffice for the baking of a quartern loaf;—the completion of the process is tested by turning out the loaf and knocking the bottom of it with the knuckles; if the sound produced is hollow and clear, like that caused by knocking at a door, the baking is satisfactory. Good bread is of a golden brown colour outside, and of a rich creamy white within; after standing for twenty-four hours from the time of baking, it should be full of little air-cells. If there are dark patches of a heavy substance without cells, we may be sure that the bread has been imperfectly kneaded, badly fermented, or carelessly baked, and that its use as food is much lessened.

It is unwholesome, as well as extravagant, to eat bread that is less than a day old. Twenty-four hours are required for it to form properly; instead of cells, new bread is full of dough-masses, which cannot be digested, and of course cannot nourish the body.

To Make Bread, put seven pounds (or two quarterns) of flour, mixed with a table-spoonful of salt, in a large dry kneading-pan or trough, placed at a convenient height for kneading. Dissolve two ounces of German yeast in a quart of water rather warmer than new milk; make a hollow in the middle of the flour, and into this stir the yeast with a wooden spoon, mixing it with enough flour to form a batter. Go on mixing with the hand, working in the flour from the edges of the hollow till the whole is used up, forming dry masses of dough. Knead these firmly together into one mass, with the knuckles of both firmly-closed hands, for ten minutes; if it sticks to the pan or the hands, either the flour is in fault, or the dough is too wet, and a little more dry flour must be kneaded in; but if all is right, the dough will be firm and all the dry flour worked up. It must now stand, covered with a cloth, for nearly two hours by the side or front of the fire. When it has risen nearly to the top of the pan, cut it into two portions; knead each on a pie-board with a little flour, and put it into a warm floured tin, pressing it well down, and taking care that the tin is only half filled, to allow for rising in the oven; then prick the dough through to the bottom four or five times with a fork, and let it stand on the fender to rise for ten minutes. Put it into a brisk oven, and bake for two hours; take care that the oven-door is kept closed for half-an-hour after the bread is put in, and that the heat is slackened for the last half-hour. When taken out, edge the loaves up on a clean table or dresser, to allow the air to reach every part of the crust and prevent its turning soft.

Rye-flour may be made into bread in the same way. Household flour, which is not quite so finely dressed or sifted as the superfine, is the best for ordinary use, because of its superior nourishing properties. The use of milk instead of water for kneading makes the bread sweet, but causes it to turn dry very soon.

Should home-made yeast be used, a longer time must be allowed for rising; it is therefore best to "set the sponge" over-night. This is done by mixing the yeast with an equal quantity of warm water, and working in sufficient flour to form a batter; dry flour is then sprinkled over the top, and the sponge, as it is called, is set by the fire all night. In the morning, the sponge is mixed with the requisite quantity of flour and salt, and worked with warm water into dough, which requires three hours to rise before it is made up into loaves.

Bread is kept moist by being shut closely in an earthenware pan; but as this destroys the crispness of the crust, many people prefer to keep it on a wooden shelf in a dry place.

Two wrongs do not make a right.

CHAPTER XXXII.

SOUP AND FISH.

Soup should form a part of the daily diet wherever there are young children; to manage this, stock should be always on hand, made from the liquor in which meat has been boiled, or from the bones of the joints slowly stewed; a pint of such stock or gravy will form the foundation of excellent soup.

Soup should always be made in a tightly-closed vessel, except when it contains any vegetable of the cabbage kind, when it is necessary to lift the lid occasionally to allow the strong flavour to escape. If stock is to be made from bones, they should be broken up, put to simmer the day before the soup is wanted, and, when they show by their white appearance that all their gelatine is extracted, removed by straining. The fat of meat is almost useless, because it will not mix with the other ingredients; if any fat does show itself on the top of the soup, it should be removed,—a process which can best be performed when it is cold, and before putting in the vegetables, which would give it a strong flavour and render it unfit for use. The thready fibres and skin of meat found at the bottom of the stock-pot after long stewing are also useless, as their nourishment has been extracted. Grated bread-crusts, cold potatoes rubbed smooth, sago, rice, corn-flour, pea-flour, barley-flour, are all useful for thickening; and, except fat, most of the odds and ends, too often wasted, can be utilized in soup making. Scotch (or whole) barley is largely used in Scotch broth, but much of it is undigested for want of crushing.

All the varieties of cabbage, turnips, carrots, peas, potatoes, onions, leeks, and the outer stalks of celery, are used in soup. These vegetables should be shred very fine, or grated if possible, and when a variety is used, they should be proportionately mixed, so that the flavour of no one of them is perceptible above that of others. The pods of young green peas are a good addition to soup during the summer. After two or three hours' boiling, the inner part of the pod is dissolved, and the outer part is easily removed.

Vegetable soups may be flavoured with a little thyme, marjoram, or celery-seed; pea-soup is agreeably flavoured with powdered dry mint, and coloured with a little burnt onion. Cloves, mace, and pepper may be used as flavourings when the soup contains no vegetables.

Vegetable Soups.—To make these from the liquor in which meat has been boiled, all that is required is to add the vegetables, finely-shred, and to let it simmer slowly for several hours. When there is but a very small quantity of stock or gravy, it is necessary to put into a stewpan about three ounces of dripping, and when it boils dredge into it two table-spoonfuls of flour, which will enable it to unite with the soup instead of rising to the top; an onion, sliced very thin, is fried in the mixture for ten minutes, and then any stock that can be obtained is made boiling hot and poured in. A large carrot and two good-sized turnips, grated, a little celery and half a cabbage finely shred, and green peas or any other vegetable that can be obtained, are next added; and the whole is then turned into a large saucepan or soup kettle and simmered for two hours. Seasoning must of course be added according to taste.

Pea-soup can be made either of split peas or pea-flour. Split-peas must be reduced to a pulp, rendering the soup of the consistency of thick cream.

Broth is made of neck of mutton or of sheep's head. For invalids, chicken-broth is often made; where a whole fowl cannot be afforded for this purpose, the necks of two or three can sometimes be obtained, and will make a very good substitute.

Fish.—Most kinds of fish are cooked by boiling, and are most delicate and digestible when thus treated, though more savoury when fried. Soles are generally fried; but for invalids, even they are best when boiled.

To Boil Fish, place it in the fish-kettle with cold water enough to cover it, in which salt is dissolved at the rate of a tea-spoonful to the quart: let it come to the boiling point slowly, and simmer for five minutes, when it will be quite tender and leave the bone easily. The kettle is always fitted with a strainer, on which the fish can be lifted out, without breaking. The size of the fish will regulate the quantity of water required to cover it, and consequently the time necessary to reach boiling point. If the fish is whole, the skin will preserve its juices; if only a portion is cooked, it should be boiled in a cloth for this purpose.

When the cooking is done, the fish is lifted out on the strainer and allowed to drain, then slipped gently on to a dish fitted with an earthenware drainer over which a linen napkin is folded in several thicknesses, to absorb any wet that may remain.

To Fry Fish, great care is needed, or the fat becomes too hot and causes disagreeable flavours and odours. It must always be lifted with a fish-slice to prevent breaking, and carefully drained from the fat in which it is fried;—a very good plan is to lay it on a sheet of clean white paper before putting it on the dish for table.

The most suitable fish for frying are soles, plaice (cut in pieces), mackerel, fresh herrings, and sprats; the last are so oily, that no fat is needed for cooking them.

Slices of salmon can be broiled or grilled; haddock, herring, and mackerel can be treated in the same way, but, being dry, require to be split open after cooking, and lightly buttered.

Sauce for Fish is usually melted butter, either plain, or with the addition of anchovy-sauce, shrimps, oysters, or chopped parsley, for the sake of flavour.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

HEALTH.

Bad health is generally the result of carelessness or of ignorance. To keep the body in order, ready to obey the will and the reason, it is necessary to use intelligence and common sense, and to possess some knowledge of the structure and work of the various organs.

When we understand that from the food we eat, the living body manufactures flesh, bone, nerve, and all the substances which form it, we see the importance of knowing the properties of the various kinds of food, that we may choose the most suitable. A knowledge of the process by which food is appropriated by the body will show the importance of good cooking and thorough mastication, so that the digestive organs may not be worn out before their time in doing rough work for which they are unfit. When we know that the food turns to blood before it can become part of the living body, and that this life-supporting blood is helped along its course by good fresh air, we take care to provide a sufficient supply of air in our dwellings. When we know how the blood circulates in the delicate capillaries immediately under the skin, we become aware of the danger of cold draughts, which shrivel these up, and send the blood back on the internal organs, causing colds and inflammations. When we understand the structure of the skin, as a wonderfully-contrived organ to throw off the waste of the body, we see the importance of keeping it active and vigorous by bathing. When we know the use of the brain and nerves in guiding and controlling the whole system, we see the necessity of giving them a due amount of sleep and of refreshment by physical exercise in the open air.

Rules for Preservation of Health.—Choose plain good food, have it properly cooked, and keep the teeth in order, that it may be well-ground. Avoid rich food, which clogs up the digestive machinery,—highly-seasoned food, which over-stimulates it,—and indigestible food, which over-works it. Give this machinery rest at night, by avoiding heavy suppers. Provide means of escape for the impure air breathed out of the lungs, and plenty of fresh pure air to help the blood in carrying nourishment over the body. Take out-door exercise daily to give freshness and energy to the brain. Be careful not to poison the outside air by allowing any substance to decay near the dwelling, or by permitting open or untrapped drains. See that the water so bountifully provided for our use is kept from pollution by poisonous gases in the air or foul water from drains.

Avoid draughts of cold air to the skin and the lungs; and keep the body at a regular temperature by the use of suitable clothing. If it is absolutely necessary to exchange a heated atmosphere for a cold one, the mouth should be kept shut, to protect the breathing apparatus from the shock. In spring, the body is often deficient in vigour, after battling with

Better be beaten than be in the wrong.

the cold of a tedious winter, and it is unwise to throw off any quantity of clothing during the prevalence of variable winds. Should the clothing become wet, the wearer should keep briskly in motion until it can be changed;—on no account should any one sit in damp garments, though even a thorough wetting is comparatively harmless when the blood can be kept quickly circulating. The feet, in particular, must be warm and dry. The skin must be regularly washed and rubbed, to prevent the clogging of its tubes, and to help circulation in the capillaries.

The work should be varied, so that no set of faculties shall be unduly tired, no set left always idle.

Lastly, regulate the diet rather than take medicine for small ailments. Many persons make themselves ill by taking drugs, when a little care and attention to regimen would be the best treatment. A witty epitaph on a victim to over-dosing runs thus:—"I was well,—would be better,—took physic;—and here I am."

CHAPTER XXXIV.

MANAGEMENT OF THE SICK.

The nursing of the sick is peculiarly woman's work; all women, whatever their position, will at some time, in some way, be required to perform it. Since this is so, and since the recovery of a patient depends more on the faithfulness and skill of the nurse than even on the doctor himself (whose orders the nurse carries out) every woman should qualify herself for the office. A knowledge of the laws of health will be of much use in the sick-room: for intelligent obedience to these laws will be found as necessary to the recovery of the sick as to the continued well-being of the healthy.

Some tell lies for lack of news.

The general duties of the nurse are,—first, to follow closely the doctor's orders with regard to remedies and food; and secondly, by securing fresh air, warmth, sunlight, personal cleanliness, and repose, to assist nature in repairing the system of the invalid.

Ventilation.—The sick-room must be kept fresh and sweet by proper ventilation and scrupulous cleanliness. It must be remembered, however, that the patient will be particularly sensitive to chills, and ventilation must be so arranged as to prevent a draught of cold air falling directly on the person. A fire in the room will not only secure the needful warmth, but aid materially in keeping the air pure; even in the height of summer, a small fire should be kept.

The air should be admitted by opening the window at the top and bottom; a screen may be used to shelter the patient from draught, and care must be taken that the door is not open at the same time. The nurse should watch for opportunities of airing the room when the patient is feeling a little stronger than usual; exhaustion always renders people liable to cold. In cases of fever or any infectious disease, it is most important that the air of the room should escape at once by the window, because it contains the poisonous breath given out by the patient.

Warmth.—In fever, the heat of the body is too great, and the doctor reduces it by diet and medicine. On the other hand, want of due heat causes the fatal termination of many illnesses, when, from the weakness and prostration caused by disease, the body is unable to obtain warmth by the combustion of food. Artificial means of warming the body are then necessary, and hot flannels, hot water bottles, and warm drinks must be used. Symptoms of coldness and exhaustion should always be noticed and *imme-*

diately attended to by the nurse, as irreparable mischief may occur from this cause before the doctor can be consulted.

When the body is chilled from the outside it has to exert itself internally to make up the loss, and the effort produces the same results that would ensue if the patient were to rise and perform some hard task of work. Hence it is necessary to protect the skin from cold, while attending to ventilation and cleanliness. All linen should be warmed before it comes near the patient.

As all internal heat comes from food, the warmth-giving kinds that digest quickly should be given frequently, by night as well as day, but in small quantities, that the digestive powers may not be over-taxed.

Sunlight warms the air of the room and keeps off nervous depression, one of the greatest hindrances to recovery. Sick persons should never remain in a room that faces the north or east, for this reason. Unless the doctor gives orders to the contrary, the light should be freely admitted, only with precautions for screening it from the eyes of the patient and preventing irritation. Sick people almost invariably lie with their faces to the light, unless it is so strong as to dazzle the eyes; and "turning the face to the wall" is so general a sign of great prostration that the expression is almost proverbial.

Cleanliness.—Some nurses have a false notion that it is dangerous to wash the skin of a patient. The fact is that the skin during sickness has more work to do than in health. It is an organ specially adapted to get rid of the waste of the body, and it should throw off much of what has produced the disease, especially in fever. The best trained nurses wash the skin regularly, to encourage and stimulate its action; but they are most careful not to produce chill, or to tire or irritate the patient;—the first end is secured by the use of warm water, and by exposing only a very small portion of the surface at once;—the second, by soft sponges and towels, very gentle handling, and by choosing the proper time of the day, when the patient is strongest.

Fever, which is characterised by a too high temperature of the body, is aggravated by the stoppage of the skin's action, because this organ is a heat-regulator as well as a drainer of waste substances. It is therefore of the utmost importance to get the skin to perform its proper duty;—this once done, we may always look for a favourable change in the patient.

The linen and bed-clothes should be frequently changed, because impregnated with effluvia from the skin; the dirty clothes should at once be removed, or they taint the air.

Rest.—It is a providential arrangement that disease generally destroys both the desire and the ability for exertion; the sick person is compelled to lie still, and nature is thus left to repair the system, undisturbed by action of body or of mind. But when he lies in bed, helpless and weak, the frame may still be worn down by irritation caused by the carelessness of those around him. Noise, sudden starts, rustling dresses or paper, creaking shoes, much talking, conversation of others in the room (especially in whispers, which cause him to listen)—careless leaning against the bed, or heavy walking across the room, so as to shake him—these, as well as inattention to his comforts and fancies, produce excitement as mischievous as hard work would be. Needless bodily exertion must also be avoided; for instance, when the bed is to be made, the sick person should be lifted on to a couch by means of the sheet; when food is to be taken, he must be gently raised and propped up under the shoulders with something firm behind the pillows. When the weakness is very great, the lifting of the head produces fainting, and food must be given by means of some contrivance which will render even this slight effort needless.

A patient should never be roused from sleep, even to take food or medicine.

When disease is passing away and the patient is gaining strength, the sick room will appear monotonous and dull to him. This is a good sign, and should be met by arranging a walk to another room, a short stay at the window, an alteration of the furniture in the room,—any little contrivance that may give change of scene, and be pleasant and exhilarating to the mind. Anything that shows the advance of the season out-of-doors has a good effect; for instance, a few fresh flowers placed within sight. It is a mistake to suppose that flowers injure the air of a room; they absorb carbonic acid gas and give out oxygen; and their presence always produces a sensation of pleasure. It is only necessary to avoid those with a very strong scent. Among other contrivances, it is desirable, and in these times of cheap art-works easy, to place within the patient's view a pleasantly-suggestive print or picture or a pretty vase, as an agreeable resting-point for the eye. Above all, this must be done without either "fuss" or laborious effort at quietness.

The Food of the Sick will be prescribed by the doctor; its administration will depend on the nurse. As every power of the body is called upon to help in restoring the health, no needless work must be given to the organs, but all the food must be of a nourishing kind and in its most easily-digested form;

Talking pays no toll.

—thus, meat will be given in the form of extract, beef-tea, or mutton broth, not in the solid form. The nurse must of course see that the food really does contain the extract of the meat, taken from it by long stewing. Bread is most easily digested in the form of toast; cooked or hot butter, and dough in any form, baked or boiled, must be avoided altogether; as a rule, vegetables are also unsuitable. If fruit is permitted, it must be perfectly ripe, and only the juice should be swallowed; all pulp, skin, seed, etc., should be carefully avoided.

Eggs, milk, and farinaceous foods generally are suitable for invalids; white fish may be taken when solid food is ordered: chicken, pheasant, or partridge may follow; and lastly, tender mutton, boiled or roasted.

The drink of the patient must be entirely under the doctor's direction; and should any stimulant be ordered, it is imperatively necessary that it should be of the best quality.

The food should be varied, both in kind and in mode of cooking, or the relish for it is lost. The patient should never be troubled to decide what he will take; the decision requires a real mental effort from which he shrinks. A good nurse saves the sick person all thought and care. The most substantial food should be given when the patient is strongest. After a restless night, an invalid cannot digest a substantial breakfast; a cup of tea and a little toast will refresh and restore the weakened frame, and then, after a little rest, when the energy is renewed, something more substantial may be given. "Little and often" should be the rule regarding an invalid's diet:—the stomach cannot take large quantities. In extreme cases, it becomes necessary to get up the strength by tea-spoonfuls of food, administered every ten minutes, day and night.

One good turn deserves another.

Food should not be kept in the patient's view; he tires of the sight of it, and the food itself becomes stale and disagreeable in the atmosphere of the room. When it is necessary to have anything close at hand, it should be kept out of sight, closely covered; and the requisite quantity should be taken from it, as needed, into a fresh clean plate or cup, and given to the patient with a clean spoon. Fruit should be kept in a cool place, and brought to the room in small quantities.

The taste of the patient with regard to food should be quietly noticed. Most sick persons have a strong dislike for sweet things; often, there is a craving for acids. Craving generally shows a want in the system, and should be attended to; the intense desire for even indigestible and apparently unsuitable food, proceeds from the same cause, and should be gratified in most cases, not treated as a mere sick fancy. The character of the food so strongly desired should be studied, and the most suitable thing of the kind given; thus, cream is the best thing when fat is demanded; lime-juice and some acid fruits, when acids are craved.

Jelly is of little use as nourishment; it acts just as a pleasant cooling drink would do, giving a large bulk of water.

Tea is lighter and more soothing than coffee, refreshing without causing feverishness; cocoa is likely to disagree with a weak patient, and does not refresh the nervous system so quickly as tea. When the delicate lining of the stomach and bowels has been weakened by inflammation, (a state that frequently causes dysentery,) the most nourishing food is warm milk into which a small quantity of beef-suet has been scraped very fine:—the water used for drink should in such cases be boiled and then made cold; and no food should be taken very hot.

Constant nausea or sickness may be remedied by taking a spoonful of lime-water three or four times a day with the food; extreme sickness is alleviated by the use of ice.

The Nurse cannot attend properly to her patient unless she takes care of herself. She should walk daily in the fresh air, choosing the time when she is least likely to be wanted, and when some one else can take her place; to give the walk an object, she may undertake some household errand. This exercise will keep her cheerful, and so, indirectly, have a good effect on the patient.

She must also have a certain consecutive number of hours' sleep, or she will make stupid mistakes regarding food and medicine, or fall asleep when she should be watching. She should undress for this rest;—the practice of sleeping in the usual clothes prevents thorough washing of the skin, and gives comparatively little refreshment. Her meals should be regular, and never taken in the sick-room, for her own sake as well as the patient's. She must avoid taking the sick person's breath, especially in infectious cases, and remember that disease is most easily caught when the system is weakened by fatigue or fasting. Lastly, she must avoid the use of stimulants, as being the fruitful cause of neglect and mistakes.

CHAPTER XXXV.

DOMESTIC MEDICINES AND REMEDIES.

It is well to keep at hand a small stock of simple remedies for ordinary ailments, especially where there are children; but it cannot be too strongly impressed that very many such ailments result from improper feeding, and may be prevented or cured by attention to diet. The habit of taking drugs for slight derangements will weaken those organs on which the medicine acts, and lay the foundation for great inconvenience and suffering in after-life.

Aperients.—One of the most common disorders produced by improper diet is the need of aperients: these, stimulating the intestinal canal, tend to weaken its natural action; and if the practice is continued, it at last refuses to act without the stimulus. The necessity for medicine of this kind is obviated by eating cooked juicy fruit, green vegetables, coarse bread, oatmeal, or treacle: gingerbread, which contains flour (or oatmeal) and treacle, is food in itself, is a treat to children, is inexpensive, and does away with the need for aperients. Indigestion is generally produced by eating too much, or by taking food difficult of digestion; bilious attacks result from eating food too rich for the stomach. Abstinence for several hours, or eating only dry crust or hard biscuit, will, especially if a little outdoor exercise be taken, generally prevent the necessity of medicine in such cases. When medicine is really required, vegetable aperients should be given in preference to minerals, as being generally gentler and safer.

Castor Oil is the most harmless aperient; it may be given when others would be positively dangerous, as in ordinary diarrhœa. The great objection to its use is, that it often causes a feeling of disgust and sickness; but with care, its taste can be concealed. The best method of administering it is to put into a wine-glass a table-spoonful of orange wine or sherry, taking care to wet the sides of the glass thoroughly; then the oil should be gently poured

Keep the feast till the feast-day.

into the middle of the wine, another table-spoonful of wine steadily poured on the top, and the whole swallowed instantly. The wine coming both before and after the oil will greatly modify its disagreeable flavour, or, if the dose has been skilfully arranged, entirely conceal it. The dose will vary in quantity according to the age of the patient, from a tea-spoonful for an infant to two table-spoonfuls, which is a rather strong dose for an adult.

Rhubarb, the ground root of the Turkey rhubarb-plant, ranks next to castor-oil as a safe and gentle aperient, therefore especially suitable for children. It is generally taken in the form of pills, or mixed with magnesia as a powder.

Colocynth is a safe aperient medicine, generally made into pills, and frequently combined with rhubarb. It is not suitable for children.

Senna-tea is a very common medicine for children. It should be well sweetened, and must not be too strong, or it will cause severe pain. It is made by pouring a pint of boiling water on half-an-ounce of leaves; the dose (which should be taken warm) varies from a large table-spoonful to a tea-cupful, according to age. Prunes steeped in the boiling infusion and kept in it for some days, form an aperient which children are very eager for; or the senna-tea may be mixed with sufficient treacle to thicken it, and a dessert-spoonful given as a dose.

Epsom Salts, perhaps the commonest mineral aperient, is a cooling medicine also, lowering the animal heat and vital power; for this reason it is good for feverishness, but unsuitable in cases of depression, and in cold weather. When taken for two or three mornings in succession, it is particularly efficacious as a remedy for eruptions about the mouth, produced by feverish colds. Two ounces of salts should be dissolved in a pint of water: a wine-glassful of this is a dose.

Seidlitz Powders resemble Epsom Salts in their properties and action: they are most useful in cases of bilious disorder.

Magnesia, besides being a safe aperient, is an antidote to over-acidity of the stomach. The dose is a small tea-spoonful, mixed smooth with milk or water.

Blue-pill, Grey-powder, and Calomel are far better omitted from the list of domestic medicines;—containing mercury, they are likely to produce after-results tending to permanent ill-health, therefore should be used only under medical direction. The same remark applies to *Laudanum* and other poisonous medicines, on account of their dangerous character.

Emetics are given to produce sickness and so remove offending substances from the stomach. Simple warm water is often sufficient; where it is not, a table-spoonful of salt or a tea-spoonful of mustard should be added to a pint of warm water:—nothing stronger should be given without the doctor's order.

Syrup of Squills is a common remedy for cold on the chest in young children. The dose is a small tea-spoonful.

Paregoric is also useful in such cases, but being narcotic, it must be carefully used. Three or four drops should be given on a lump of sugar.

Tincture of Camphor is an excellent remedy in the first stage of cold, especially catarrh; for this, eight or ten drops should be taken on sugar, as soon as the symptons show themselves. It is also very valuable in diarrhœa, when five or six drops should be taken every fifteen minutes at first, and less often as the disorder abates.

Sulphur is an old-fashioned "Spring medicine" for

We creep before we run.

purifying the blood and checking eruptions on the skin. Formerly when fresh meat and green vegetables could not be obtained during the winter, these spring eruptions were a common result of the many weeks' defective food, and spring medicines were necessary; but the need is now hardly felt, since fresh meat, vegetables, and even fruit can be obtained all through the year. The practice of taking mineral medicines in the spring should be adopted with extreme caution; for their action is lowering, and likely to injure persons whose vital power is already depressed by the cold of winter. Ten drops of per-chloride of iron, mixed with a tea-spoonful of lime-juice in a wine-glass of water, will serve every purpose of spring medicines, without their lowering effects.

Sweet Spirit of Nitre is used in cases of cold to promote perspiration. A small tea-spoonful is a dose:—it is generally taken in a basin of gruel.

EXTERNAL APPLICATIONS.

Liniments are rubbed into the skin by the hand, to produce by their stimulating power a rush of blood to the surface and relieve an internal part, or simply to promote circulation in parts that are unhealthy or injured. They are of course unsuitable where the skin is broken.

Hartshorn and Oil is useful when the neck is stiff from cold, or the glands of the neck and throat swollen. It is bought ready for use.

Mustard Liniment may be made at home, by mixing half-an-ounce of strong mustard with half-a-pint of turpentine, shaking them well together several times, allowing the mixture to stand three or four days, and pouring off the clear liquid into a bottle, which will require to be well corked. It is useful for stiff joints, chilblains, sprains, and bruises.

Though old and wise, still take warning.

Opodeldoc is used for sprains, and for stiffness arising from cold. It is procured from a chemist.

Counter-irritants, or blisters, are laid on the skin to answer the same purpose as liniments, but their action is much stronger, producing actual inflammation. The internal organ, which is out of reach, is thus relieved at the expense of the skin, but this can be afterwards soothed and healed with comparative ease. Whenever blisters of any kind are used, great precaution must be taken against cold to the part, since they render the skin exceedingly tender and sensitive.

Mustard-blisters may be made mild or severe, according to circumstances, by mixing the mustard with linseed-meal or using it alone. If used alone, it should be mixed with warm water and spread on cotton or linen; then a piece of very thin muslin should be spread over the mustard to keep it from the skin. The size will depend on the extent of the pain; the place of application must be immediately over the part affected. The blister must be removed when very strong smarting begins;—the actual time will vary with the thickness of the skin, the strength of the blister, and the intensity of the internal pain, ten minutes sufficing in some cases, while forty-five may be required in others. After the plaster is removed the part must be bathed with warm water and a sponge, then dressed with a piece of soft linen rag spread with spermaceti ointment, cold cream, or unsalted lard. After two or three days the skin will peel off.

Turpentine is very safe as a counter-irritant, much stronger in its action than mustard. A small piece of flannel, unfolded, is saturated with it and laid on the part, and over this is placed a flannel wrung out of hot water. On the heat of this flannel depends the strength of the blister; without it, the action of turpentine is exceedingly mild.

Blistering-fluids should not be used except by a doctor. They are dangerous to keep, and if the internal inflammation is severe enough to resist the heated turpentine, it is beyond domestic treatment. When such fluids have been used, the skin will generally rise in watery blisters, which require the same treatment as those produced by burns.

Lotions are used to check inflammation by removing heat from the inflamed part. The heat is used up in converting the liquid part of the lotion into steam, which flies off, taking the heat with it. Hence those liquids that evaporate most quickly make the best lotions. The liquid is applied by dipping a single fold of linen into it and laying it quite loosely on the part;—no covering must be used, as this would hinder evaporation. The application should be renewed again and again for several hours.

Vinegar is a very common and useful lotion. It should be diluted with three times the quantity of water.

Spirit of Wine, Eau-de-Cologne, or spirit of any kind, must be diluted with water, in the proportion of a pint to a wine-glassful of the spirit.

Ice is often used as a kind of lotion. The quantity of heat absorbed by it in turning into steam is so much greater than that taken up by ordinary cold liquid, that it is very efficacious in extreme cases. It is applied in a bag or bladder. When used for the head it not only cools, but relieves tho pressure of blood on the brain by shrinking the small vessels.

Zinc Lotion, for inflammation of the eyes, is made by putting one penny-worth of sulphate of zinc into a pint of spring water. It should be applied on rag at night, and the eyes frequently washed with it during the day. It must be kept corked and distinctly marked "Poison;" any that is not wanted for use should be at once thrown away, to prevent accident.

Poultices keep a part warm, moist, and soft, so that the skin and surrounding parts yield to the swelling caused by bruises, gatherings, etc. They should be applied warm and kept closely covered with flannel, oiled silk, or gutta-percha tissue, to prevent the escape of warmth and moisture;—when dry, they may, without removal, be wetted with warm water, but should be changed frequently, or they become sour and offensive.

Bread-and-Milk poultice is made by pouring on to bread-crumb enough hot milk to saturate it, and beating it up into a rather stiff paste. It is the mildest of these remedies.

Linseed-meal is stronger in its action, really causing a gathering to form more quickly. The meal should be mixed with boiling water to a paste.

Oatmeal is also rather strong. It is treated like linseed.

Bran is used in the same way when a very large poultice is required, and is very efficacious.

Boiled Figs or *Roasted Onions* also make excellent poultices.

Camomile-flowers and Poppy-heads, mixed, are applied as a soothing poultice, and may be so used after affording an infusion for fomentation.

Fomentation answers the same purpose as poulticing; but as it cannot be constantly kept up, it is less generally used. Fomenting is bathing a part for a long time with warm liquid, to soften it. Steaming is used for the same purpose.

Water-dressing is an excellent substitute for poulticing. It is merely the application of a rag, dipped in cold water, and covered with some substance (such as gutta-percha tissue) which will prevent the escape of vapour. The water turns to steam, and, unable to escape, keeps the part warm, soft, and moist. A water-dressing is more convenient than a poultice, being lighter and less clumsy.

Gargles are washes for the throat, used when there is much phlegm, ulceration, or weakness. The fluids used for this purpose should never be swallowed, as they sometimes contain poisonous ingredients. The best domestic remedy of the kind is strong sage tea, mixed with an equal quantity of vinegar and sweetened with honey.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

COMMON AILMENTS AND THEIR TREATMENT.

Colds.—The variable climate of our country renders its inhabitants particularly liable to colds, and to the many serious diseases of which they are the foundation. Sudden chill causes a great rush of blood to some internal organ, interfering with its work, and producing inflammation. Thus, catarrh, or cold in the head, is inflammation of the mucous membrane or lining of the nose and eyes, which excites it to manufacture an over-supply of the fluid it secretes, and causes running at the nose. Sore throat is inflammation of the lining of the throat, often producing ulceration; croup is inflammation of the lining of the wind-pipe; bronchitis, of that of the air-tubes between the throat and the lungs; pleurisy, of the membrane in which the lungs are contained.

The most common causes of chill are shocks or draughts of cold air to the skin or lungs, putting on damp garments, sleeping in a damp bed, sitting still in wet clothing, (especially shoes), neglecting to change the clothing after profuse perspiration, or neglecting to rub the body to a glow after bathing. These not only check the circulation of the blood in the capillary vessels, but close the pores of the skin —the great heat-regulator and waste-expeller of the system. Hence ensue fever and rheumatism, as well as the local inflammations already noticed.

General Treatment.—The first aim is to restore the action of the skin, that the internal organs may be relieved from pressure, and waste or poisonous matter may be got rid of. To do this the patient, unless very weak, should plunge up to the neck in a warm bath, remain in it from five to ten minutes, dry quickly, wrap up in a warm blanket, and get into a warm bed. The bath should be followed by a hot drink, to promote perspiration and replace the loss caused by it :—hot oatmeal gruel, bran-tea, a pint of milk into which two tablespoonfuls of treacle have been stirred, wine whey, or mulled ale or wine may be given; the first three only are suitable if the cold is accompanied by fever. If a warm bath is not available, the patient should wrap up in a blanket, put his feet and legs up to the knees in a pail of warm water, containing a tablespoonful of mustard; and a bottle of hot water should be placed close to the feet immediately he gets into bed. A teaspoonful of sweet spirit of nitre may be given with or after the warm drink, to encourage perspiration; or, if there is much feverishness, a dose of castor oil or rhubarb.

It must be understood that profuse perspiration thus produced, weakens the system and renders the strongest person liable to fresh cold after recovery. For delicate patients the warm bath is, therefore, A pet lamb makes a troublesome sheep.

unsuitable, and in all cases care is needed to prevent a recurrence of chill; a vigorous rubbing of the skin with a rough towel is one of the best safeguards,

General Treatment of Coughs.—Coughs, and all disorders of the breathing organs, require the same general treatment as colds; but besides this, great care is required to prevent cold air from entering the throat, lungs, or other part affected. The air breathed should be kept at the same temperature, night and day;—no amount of external heat, wrapping, or medicine, will avail without this, and if the disease becomes chronic, long residence in a warm climate is the only means of possible cure. Long confinement to a warm room produces languor and debility, which aggravates the disease; while inhaling damp or cold air is like a plunge into cold water to the weak and irritated breathing apparatus.

Specific Treatment.—(1). *Ordinary Feverish Cold* shows itself in hot dry skin, flushed face, parched tongue, and great internal feverishness. The general treatment usually cures it, stimulants being avoided; but should perspiration not be produced and the feverishness remain, there is danger of internal derangement—acute inflammation or fever.

(2). *Catarrh*, or cold in the head, is best treated in the same way.

(3). *Influenza* is a combination of these two forms of cold, frequently attended with soreness and pain in the limbs. The same remedies are used.

(4). *Sore Throat* requires the same general treatment, with the addition of local remedies to relieve the inflammation. A good method is to inhale the steam from a vessel of very hot water, the head being meanwhile covered with a woollen shawl, to prevent the escape of the steam. Hartshorn and oil, well rubbed into the skin over the part affected, will stimulate it and cause irritation to counteract that of the internal part. This may be followed by hot bran or linseed poultices: should these fail to relieve, a mustard plaster must be applied. When it is very difficult or impossible to excite external irritation, the inflammation may be considered dangerous.

Honey and vinegar mixed in equal parts may be given to relieve the soreness and cleanse the throat. A tea-spoonful to be taken at short intervals.

(5). *Croup* is a disease almost peculiar to children under three years of age. It begins suddenly, often in the night, and sometimes terminates fatally within two days, after causing great and constant suffering. Those who have the care of children should understand its symptoms and treatment, because delay frequently causes the death of the patient. The symptoms are hoarseness, great difficulty of breathing accompanied by feverishness, and a very peculiar harsh cough: when the attack is severe, the child struggles for breath with wide-extended nostrils and head thrown back. The best remedies are inhaling warm air, and the use of a hot bath, or hot blankets and warm drinks. Bran or linseed poultices, or flannels wrung out of hot water, should be kept on the windpipe; if these do not relieve the breathing, a mustard plaster must be applied, or two or three leeches. To remove the phlegm, one grain of tartar emetic should be dissolved in a table-spoonful of water, and a tea-spoonful of the mixture administered every ten minutes.

(6). *Bronchitis* is inflammation of the membrane lining the air-tubes that branch from the windpipe to the lungs: it produces a sense of suffocation. The remedies are the same as for cold and cough, with the addition of counter-irritants applied to the upper part of the chest, on a line with the collar-bone.

Too much of a good thing is good for nothing.

(7). *Inflammation of the Lungs* is caused by an over-charge of blood in the tubes and vessels of those organs. The plaster or poultice must, for this disease, be laid over the whole of the upper part of the chest, and between the shoulder-blades; in other respects it is treated as cough. When the inflammation is not checked, it commonly produces congestion of the lungs, and terminates fatally.

(8). *Pleurisy* causes acute pain in the side and catching of the breath. Counter-irritation is required at the surface of the painful spot, and all other means as in ordinary cold. Neglected pleurisy is very dangerous, frequently producing consumption.

(9). *Inflammation of the Bowels* is generally the result of wearing damp clothing or sitting in damp shoes. It is characterised by acute pain, and requires the immediate application of warm fomentation or counter-irritants, as well as the remedies for cold.

(10). *Whooping Cough.*—Although this disease is most frequently caught from others, cold is, no doubt, a predisposing cause. It begins with all the symptoms of a cold; the cough, at first slight, increases in a few days in severity, until the breath is exhausted, the patient gasps as if suffocating, turns purple in the face, and clutches for support at anything near. The paroxysm of coughing ends with a long whoop, and phlegm is expelled from the chest; very frequently the exertion disturbs the digestive organs, and produces sickness. In ordinary cases the cough is not dangerous; but it cannot be cured. Relief may be given by doses of tartar emetic or ipecacuanha. The patient should be out in the open air as much as possible while it is dry and warm, but every precaution must be taken against inhaling a cold or damp atmosphere. Change of air during the day is of great service, even though the distance traversed may be only a mile or two; and after about six weeks, change to warm country or sea air will restore the patient in a few days. In mild cases, little difference of health is apparent between the fits of coughing; but when the straining is very violent, inflammation of the lungs or brain, squinting, and convulsions sometimes result.

Rheumatism is one of the frequent results of cold. It may be merely stiffness and powerlessness of some part of the body, accompanied by pain and swelling more or less,—or it may be complicated by fever and intense pain, when the patient is utterly helpless, and great medical skill needed. The best preventive, and the best remedy for the simpler kind, is to keep the bodily temperature even by the use of flannel clothing.

Fevers, like inflammations, are often the result of neglected colds; more frequently they are caused by inhaling poisonous gases from drains or decayed substances or by taking the breath of a person already suffering from fever. The ordinary symptoms of fever-poisoning are hot dry skin, rapid pulse, headache, disagreeable breath, furred tongue, heavy dull eyes, pains in the back and limbs, and general languor. In violent cases, the patient becomes delirious, and the tongue turns black. When the fever is eruptive, as in scarlet fever, measles, chicken pox and small pox, the eruption usually follows the milder symptoms; it is a relief to the system, and shows that nature has succeeded in the effort to throw out the poison. When the later and more severe signs appear, without eruption, the fever is called typhoid or typhus, and is accompanied by an utter prostration of nervous energy which is one of its most dangerous features, only to be overcome by the most careful nursing and constant feeding, under medical direction.

Wink at small faults; you have great ones yourself.

General Treatment of Fever.—The patient should be kept in a well-ventilated room, whence the air can escape at once to the outside; but draughts must be carefully avoided *(See Management of the Sick)*. Carpets and upholstery imbibe the fever-poison, and should not be allowed; for the same reason, a room with painted or coloured walls is to be preferred to one covered with paper. The skin must be kept clean and in action by warm sponging; the linen must be often changed. The only solid food will be sago, tapioca, arrowroot, and other farinaceous substances;—milk, barley-water, lemonade, toast-water, or apple-tea may be drunk, jelly and the juices of fruit may also be taken. In and after eruptive fevers, chill must be most carefully prevented, or they may result in chronic sores, weak eyes, or dropsy.

Specific Forms of Fever.—(1). *Small-pox* is one of the most contagious and virulent diseases. Vaccination is most useful as a means of modifying its violence, though it is not a certain preventive unless repeated every few years. The symptoms of the disease are alternate heat and shivering, great pain in the back, and sickness. The eruption appears about the third day in the form of small pimples or pustules, —first on the face, where they are generally thickest, —then on the neck, body, and limbs; these become large and filled with matter, and show a pit or depression in the centre. The pustules burst about the eighth day, close up with a dry crust, and then gradually heal. When the disease is very severe, the pustules become confluent—that is, they grow very large and run together; they then leave the face scarred as if by fire, and sometimes cause blindness. The greatest care is necessary to prevent the patient touching the eruption, as this increases the inflammation and

Do not put all your eggs in one basket.

tends to cause confluence. In other respects, small-pox requires the same treatment as other fevers.

(2). *Chicken-pox* generally attacks children only. The eruption seldom touches the face, and consists of blisters, which become troublesome sores only in severe cases; the pustules have not the central depression seen in those caused by small-pox. The disease is generally slight, and attended by little feverishness;—the children attacked are seldom prostrated, and can amuse themselves as usual. The chief care is to keep them in a warm room apart, to give them only light unstimulating food, and administer gentle aperient medicine.

(3). *Measles* commence with feverishness and most of the symptoms of influenza. The rash appears on the fourth day, in patches of a dark red colour, at first on the face only, then over the whole body; in three or four days it begins to die away, and in a week disappears. The action of the skin should be encouraged by warmth or a warm bath; the lightest, most unstimulating food should be taken, and the feverishness should be kept down by a little cooling medicine.

This disease is very infectious; and, though seldom serious in itself, is likely to leave behind it most troublesome effects, unless the patient is well protected from chill, for some time after the eruption has disappeared.

(4). *Scarlet Fever* commences with the ordinary fever-symptoms, accompanied by sore-throat, which is its distinguishing characteristic. On the second day little points or spots of a very bright red colour appear, and extend over the body being sometimes close enough to touch each other. At the end of a week from its appearance, the eruption dies, and the skin comes off in flakes. The general treatment is the same as for measles; mild aperients may be given, and where the skin is much irritated, it may be oiled

There's a ten-pound road for every five-pound note.

after sponging. A warm bath daily encourages the peeling of the skin.

The disease is exceedingly infectious,—most highly so when the skin is peeling,—and none is more fatal to children. It is also dangerous in its after-effects; dropsy often following with fatal results, from chill taken when, apparently, all need for care is at an end.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

COMMON AILMENTS (continued).

Diarrhœa in its simplest form and earliest stage is often regarded with needless apprehension; probably because it may be the first symptom of cholera, and is the last fatal stage of several diseases. Unless attended with sickness and cramping pain, or so long continued as to become weakening, it should be treated as an effort of nature to get rid of some substance irritating the lining of the intestine. A gentle dose of castor oil or rhubarb and magnesia will help to expel the hurtful substance, and is better than a strong astringent to stop the disorder. Astringents should be used if the aperient medicine fails to allay the symptoms in a few hours. Arrow-root, sago, tapioca, rice-milk, or baked rice-pudding are the only suitable foods, and should be taken only lukewarm; in the earlier stages, arrow-root made with water and flavoured with a dessert-spoonful of brandy is the best thing.

The general cause of diarrhœa and its allied disorders is the eating of unripe or decaying fruit, putrid meat, stale vegetables or fish, or indigestible food; frequently, however, they proceed from breathing poisonous air or drinking polluted water; and

None are so well shod but they may slip.

they may even be caused by mental excitement, particularly by fear.

English Cholera is diarrhœa, accompanied by sickness and violent cramping pain. The cramp must be allayed by active rubbing, while hot water-bottles and flannels are applied to the feet and arm-pits; the diarrhœa must be checked by strong astringents and brandy. Strong tincture of camphor is a very highly-esteemed remedy; three or four drops to be given every ten minutes. Medical advice should be obtained immediately; and precautions must be taken, by the use of disinfectants, to prevent the spread of the disease, which is supposed to be the result of a contagious poison in the air or water.

Asiatic Cholera has the symptoms of English cholera, but is characterised by very rapid prostration of all the powers of the body, which seems to end in internal paralysis. It begins with diarrhœa, attacking those whose frames are weakened by insufficient nourishment or by excess, and those whose blood, vitiated by bad air, is ready to absorb the poisonous invisible substance that causes the disease. The treatment is the same as that of English Cholera, the vital heat and circulation being kept up by friction and artificial heat, while brandy and strong astringents are given, until the doctor arrives.

Bilious Headache.—Bile is a yellow alkaline fluid secreted by the liver, to be poured on the food after it leaves the stomach and to help in its assimilation. Bilious attacks are caused by an over-abundance of this fluid, which then passes out of its place into the stomach, causing headache and a constant feeling of sickness; frequently it goes further, and produces a peculiar yellow tinge in the skin and eyeballs, which is characteristic also of jaundice the more severe form of the disturbances.

The chief cause is derangement of the digestive organs from taking much rich, sweet, fatty food; the best remedy is a simple acid aperient such as Seidlitz powder or Epsom salts, which will counteract the alkaline properties of the bile. Persons who are at all subject to this ailment should, at its first symptoms, take a brisk walk in the fresh air, and eat only dry biscuit or bread-crust for the next few hours; this alone will often be a sufficient remedy, if promptly undertaken.

Nervous Headache is distinguished from bilious headache by causing acute fixed pain in one part of the head as from a sharp instrument driven in. It is caused by fatigue of the brain. It is relieved by strong tea, which nourishes the brain, and by perfect quietness in a shaded room.

Swelling of Glands in the face, neck, etc., is a common result of weakness from cold or other diseases. They can be soothed by steaming, and by warm poultices of camomile-flowers; the part must be covered to prevent chill.

Earache is often caused by internal gatherings, which should be aided by warmth. A few drops of warm salad oil should be put into the ear, and a poultice of camomiles and poppy-heads, or a baked onion stripped of its outer skin, applied; to soothe the pain when it is very great, two or three drops of laudanum may be poured into the ear.

Whitlows are gatherings at the root or edge of the nail, which by its hard unyielding pressure on the swelling, causes great pain; generally, the inflammation extends to the hand and arm. The nail must be cut away as far as possible, and softened by constant warm poultices, which will also help the gathering to burst. This result does not always occur quickly: it is then necessary to have the finger lanced.

Ordinary Gatherings are treated in the same way as whitlows. Linseed-meal poultices are more effectual than those of bread-and-water, but more painful. A plaster of yellow soap mixed with raw sugar is often used, and causes the matter to form very quickly, but at the cost of a great deal of heat and throbbing.

Chilblains are produced by imperfect circulation in the capillaries, which become inflamed) that is, too full of blood in places), and this causes great heat and irritation. They are best prevented by warm woollen stockings, easy shoes, and plenty of exercise. After they have once formed they may be relived by rubbing with some stimulative liniment, such as opodeldoc, hartshorn, camphor or mustard. If the skin is broken, they should be bathed with warm strained gruel to cleanse, soothe, and heal the surface; then cold cream or spermaceti should be applied, on linen rag.

The irritation of chilblains often causes a child to scratch off the skin, and as they most frequently occur on the foot, they are particularly liable to be festered by particles of grit or dust. Like many other trivial ailments, they sometimes bring serious consequences if neglected.

Chapped Hands are caused by want of oily substance in the outer skin, and are therefore aggravated by washing with hard or hot water, strong soap, or soda; dirt will also increase the mischief by choking the tubes which convey the oil from the glands to the skin. The hands should be washed in soft or boiled water, and the circulation promoted by rubbing well afterwards. A handful of oatmeal made into a paste and used during washing will keep the skin oiled and soft; but if the skin is broken, the hands should be rubbed with glycerine or cold cream and covered at night with a pair of leather gloves from which the fingers have been cut. Lemon-juice rubbed on after washing is both a preventive and a cure.

Misfortunes seldom come single.

Skin Diseases may be the result of an impoverished state of the blood, or of some external and contagious cause.

Scorbutic Eruptions arise from the blood, and are caused by poor food, excess of salt meat, or want of vegetables. Sometimes boils are formed; sometimes, the epidermis becomes dry and cracked. The best remedies are plenty of plain nutritious food,—beef-tea, soup, mutton, and fresh beef,—all vegetables of the cabbage kind, lettuce, cress, and sorrel,—plenty of milk, and sweet juicy fruit. A little zinc ointmen should be applied to the affected skin, or thick crean into which tho juice has been pressed from the fleshy leaf of the house-leek.

Itch is taken by contact. It is caused by a very minute insect which burrows under the skin, attacking the parts where there are folds, such as the arm-pits, the skin between the fingers, etc.: here it deposits its eggs, and causes a slight eruption with intense irritation. As it is communicated by objects that tho diseased person has touched it is necessary to isolate him entirely and devote every energy to getting rid of the complaint. The best known remedy is sulphur, taken as a medicine, and applied externally in baths; if the disease has attacked the hands (where its first attacks are usually made) they should be kept bathed in sulphur and water; an ointment of lard and sulphur should also be rubbed into tho skin. Clothing, bedding, books—anything that may have been used by the sufferer—should be washed in sulphur and water or fumigated with the same substance. The best preventive of itch is cleanliness;—a perfectly clean person is liable to tho contagion, but in a far less degree than one whose skin is not daily washed, and the disease will get such a very slight hold as to be treated with comparative ease.

It is good to be out of harm's way.

Ringworm is produced by a fungus which grows in the skin, generally attacking the head. At first a bright red mark is seen; this extends in curved line, till the ends join and form a ring, of the size of a halfpenny. If not checked, similar patches break out on other parts of the body and are very troublesome. The hair must be cut off from the part affected, and the place carefully washed with strong soap several times a day; after each washing, black ink should be applied to the spot with a feather: the copperas in the ink destroys the fungus.

Ringworm is exceedingly contagious, and any child suffering from it should be kept away from others.

Teething-Convulsions are best prevented by keeping children much in the open air, counteracting any symptom of feverishness by aperient food or medicines, and strengthening the system with good beef-tea. The signs of convulsion are sudden paleness. rolling of eyes, and distortion of features, while the hands are clenched, and the limbs spasmodically stretched or bent. The child should be stripped and examined to see if there is any apparent cause for the attack :—then plunged to the neck in water as warm as the hand can bear it, to which a table-spoonful of mustard may be added. The gums may require to be lanced, aperient medicine given, and the spine rubbed with hartshorn and oil three times a day.

Convulsions happen sometimes from irritation of the digestive organs; this is shown by the stomach being hard and the veins of the neck swollen. In this case, a feather should be applied to the throat to produce sickness, and a dose of castor-oil administered.

Have no more secrets than you can keep yourself.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

ACCIDENTS ETC.

A knowledge of the best method of treating ordinary accidents will be useful to every one, and may very possibly be the means of preventing great suffering, or of saving valuable life. To deal with many cases of accidents, great presence of mind and strong nerve are required,—qualities that need to be acquired by the practice of self-forgetfulness.

It is necessary, when an accident occurs, to ascertain the extent of the injury; this is not always apparent at first, and a serious matter is thus treated lightly. Shock to the nervous system, from a fall for instance, may ultimately produce paralysis, especially if the head or back receives a blow;—a neglected sprain may result in permanent stiffening of the joint; and a broken bone may remain undiscovered for days, and produce intense suffering. In all but the most obviously simple cases, injuries from accidents should receive surgical care; but as prompt treatment is of the highest importance, it is well to know what to do until help arrives.

Fire.—When the clothing catches fire, the wearer should on no account run about, but throw herself down and roll round, catching tightly round her the hearth-rug, woollen table-cover, a thick shawl, or anything that may be at hand, to crush out the flame. Accidents of this kind might be lessened by dissolving a piece of alum in the water in which muslin and cotton dresses are rinsed.

Burns and Scalds.—The important matter is to exclude the air from the part injured, entirely and at once, with anything that will serve the purpose. Cotton wadding, split in two, with the outside skin left on, is the best thing; it has the advantage that the dressing required can be applied without its removal. A mixture of sweet oil and lime water, in equal quanties, is extensively used in iron foundries as a remedy for burns, and it should be poured on the cotton wadding till it saturates it. Should neither of these remedies be at hand, a thin paste of common whiting and sweet oil should be laid thickly on the wound, or a thick crust of common flour. The greatest care must be taken to keep the skin unbroken: any clothing that requires removal should, if necessary, be cut away, rather than stripped off.

When the blisters produced by such an injury appear full and white, as they will do in two days, they should be cut with a pair of sharp scissors, that the fluid may escape; then, if no inflammation appears, a healing ointment of spermaceti or unsalted lard should be applied on soft linen rag. The patient's strength must be kept up by very light and nourishing food.

Burning with Acid, such as vitriol or aquafortis, should be treated by washing the skin plentifully with water to dilute the acid and applying soda, soap, chalk, or whiting.

Wounds produced by cutting with blunt instruments, or by striking against hard substances, are complicated by the jagging or bruising of the flesh; those produced by sharp instruments are more likely to sever blood-vessels. The aim in treating them is to assist the natural tendency to healing, by removing sand, dirt, or hair, and keeping the edges of the wound as near together as possible. The wound should be washed with a soft sponge and plenty of lukewarm water, if there is the least likelihood of any particles of grit having entered it, as any such substance will cause festering; then, while the edges are held together with the finger and thumb, straps of sticking-plaster must be laid across in a slanting direction, to keep the cut from opening. When the wound is very large and deep, plaster will not hold it, and the surgeon will at once sew the edges together.

A simple cut on the finger, if clean, should be bandaged round, while bleeding, with a piece of soft linen; the blood hardens and keeps out the air, so assisting in the repair of the injury. A leather glove-finger should be slipped over the bandage to keep it clean and exclude air.

When an artery is cut, bright scarlet blood spurts from the wound in jets (an effect not produced by cutting a vein) and prompt measures are necessary to prevent bleeding to death. The treatment is to stop the flow of blood into the part by very strong pressure on the artery at a point above the wound, by means of a tight bandage of broad tape, or a long handkerchief; the bandage must be rendered still tighter by slipping under it, at the side opposite the wound, a pencil or stick, and twisting it round and round. A small round pad,—a bung or cork is a good one—may with great advantage be placed on the artery under the bandage, to increase the pressure at that part; but no time must be lost in seeking for this; the bandage must be tied and tightened at once, and kept in its place till the doctor comes. After surgical care, the wounded limb must be slung in such a position that the blood must run up, not down, towards the wound, or the force may open it again.

It is necessary, in order to treat such an accident in the best way, to know beforehand the position of the large arteries of the limbs. That of the arms lies along the inner edge of one of the muscles of the upper arm,—the muscle that is seen to swell up when a heavy weight is lifted with the hand. That of the leg runs from the groin along the inner part of the leg towards the knee, holding a position corresponding with that of the arm. They are best found by feeling for their throbbing.

Festered Wounds require assistance to throw off the matter that is forming. Poultices of bread-and water, linseed-meal, or oatmeal should be applied.

Bruises are produced by crushing or violent blows, which break the small blood-vessels beneath the surface; the escaped blood lies under the skin, causing blackness, swelling, and sometimes great inflammation. The skin or nail may be softened by hot poultices, that it may yield to the swelling; or a water-dressing may be applied.

Sprains are caused by the sudden stretching or tearing of the ligaments that bind the bones together at the joints; they cause great swelling and discolouration, by tearing the small blood-vessels. The first remedy is perfect rest; if the arm is injured, it must be slung,—if the knee or ancle, the leg must be kept lying up. The swelling must be treated as that of a bruise, and after this is reduced, the action of the ligaments must be aided by strong bandages. The joint will probably be stiff for a time; this must be remedied by frequent rubbing with some stimulative liniment, such as opodeldoc or hartshorn and oil. Pouring or pumping cold water on the joint will quicken the circulation and restore action.

Stings of Insects are poisonous, and if the sting is left in the wound, may produce erysipelas. The person stung should endeavour to avoid brushing off the insect before it has had time to withdraw the sting, and then apply some alkaline substance—a strong solution of washing-soda, carbonate of soda, or potash.

Dust or Lime in the Eye is best removed by

Great barkers are no biters.

sniffing snuff or pepper, which cause the eyes to water and wash out the offending substance. Water may also be squeezed in from a sponge, or very gently thrown in with a syringe, from the outer angle at the edge of the upper lid.

Adder-bites cause immediate pain and great swelling. A string should be tied at once tightly both above and below the wound, to stop the circulation of the poisoned blood, and if possible, the poison should be sucked out—an operation in which there is not the least danger if the skin of the mouth is free from cracks or scratches; if this cannot be done at once, it may be necessary to burn the wounded part. The bite must be anointed with lard or sweet oil, and brandy, strong coffee, or sal-volatile given to rouse the system from faintness.

Bite of Mad Dog.—Stop the circulation by tying very tightly above and below the wound. Then without hesitation, apply to the wounded flesh a *white-hot* iron wire, such as a skewer or knitting-needle. This requires some nerve, and a firm hand on the part of the operator; but it is not really a painful process if the iron is white-hot, as then the nerves are destroyed instantly. The patient may safely be assured that the operation will cause little pain; but as the nerves are pretty sure to be excited, it is better that he should not be allowed to see it, if it can be avoided. If properly managed this treatment is a safeguard against all evil results from the injury.

Dread of hydrophobia predisposes to the disease, and if intense may even be the sole cause of it; every possible assurance of safety should therefore be given to the person bitten.

Quick at meat, quick at work.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

ACCIDENTS, ETC., (continued).

Drowning is suffocation, or stoppage of the flow of air to the lungs, which causes their action to cease; hence the means taken to revive persons who have been immersed for some time should be such as will tend to restore the action of breathing and the proper temperature of the body. Such means should be continued for at least an hour, even though no sign of life may appear.

The body of anyone apparently drowned should be taken to the nearest shelter, stripped of the wet clothes, rolled in any dry warm, woollen things that can be procured, and laid (if possible, in a warm bed) on the back, with the shoulders supported by a round sofa-cushion, or some equally firm article. A free passage must be made to the lungs, by clearing the mouth and nose, then drawing the tongue forward over the lower lip and tying it down, as far back as possible, to the lower jaw. Next, the movement of breathing must be imitated. Take hold of the arms above the elbows and draw them up till they lie beside the head, the hands meeting above it; this draws up the ribs so as to make a space in the chest, into which the outer air will rush if the passage is free, and so fill the lungs almost as by natural inspiration. Then expel this air by lowering the arms, pressing the elbows gently against the ribs, and pressing the breast-bone inward. Repeat this operation, at the rate of about fifteen times a minute, until the chest is seen to rise and fall voluntarily. Filling the lungs may be aided by blowing gently into one nostril with a quill or a pair of bellows during the raising of the arms. The next care is to restore warmth and circu-

Ill weeds grow apace.

lation, by putting the body up to the neck in a warm bath for five or six minutes, first in a reclining, then in a sitting position, moving the arms up and down as before. Strong smelling-salts, snuff, or pepper must be applied to the nostrils, the throat tickled with a feather, and hot and cold water dashed alternately over the face and chest. If the difficulty of breathing is great when the natural movements are restored, mustard plasters may be applied to the chest and between the shoulder-blades. When there is power to swallow, hot coffee or wine-and-water should be given; then the patient should be allowed to sleep in a warm bed.

If a bath cannot be obtained, its place must be filled by warm blankets; hot bricks, bags of hot sand, or bottles of hot water must be placed against the stomach, under the arm-pits, at the soles of the feet, and between the thighs; at the same time the various parts of the body, carefully covered by the hot wrappers, should be briskly rubbed by two or three persons.

Suffocation by fumes of charcoal, etc., stops the circulation and should be treated as fainting.

Fainting.—The cause is want of oxygen in the air; fresh air is therefore the first restorative. The patient should be taken to an open window, or out-of-doors, and laid down, with the head slightly raised; any clothing likely to impede the breathing should be removed, water dashed on the face and hands, and vinegar applied to the temples and nostrils. Smelling-salts may also be used with advantage. After breathing is restored, the patient should drink cold water, or sal-volatile in water.

Apoplexy is characterised by instant stoppage of all sense and motion, and by the red colour of the face. It is caused by excess of blood in the vessels, A word is enough to the wise.

which stops circulation, and by affecting the brain produces insensibility; stout persons of florid complexion, with short thick neck and full veins, are most liable to it. The clothes should be loosened, especially about the neck, the body placed in a *sitting* posture; while cold water or vinegar and water should be applied to the head, and mustard poultices to the soles of the feet: or the feet may be plunged into warm mustard-and-water. The doctor will restore circulation by taking blood from a vein.

Hanging or Strangling is to be treated in the same manner as apoplexy, its effects being nearly the same.

Epileptic Fits cause the sufferer to fall helpless on the face, with convulsive jerkings, distortion of the face, and foaming at the lips. Their dangerous character arises from the likelihood of the patient falling on to some sharp or hard object, down the stairs, or into fire or water; for this reason persons subject to them should not be left alone, especially after excitement, or when out of health, when they are especially liable to the attacks. Danger also arises from the convulsions, during which the sufferer will often dash himself about, bite the tongue or lip severely, or even in some cases seize on persons or objects with great strength and fury. The immediate cause of these fits appears to be loss of control over the nerves of motion; their first cause may be anything that tends to excite the nervous system—anger, depression, fright, or excess in any form.

The patient should be laid on his back, the clothing loosened, and the limbs held firmly to check the convulsive action. A cushion must be laid under the head, and a cork or pad of india-rubber, placed between the teeth, with precaution against its being drawn into the throat. A black handkerchief may be

Be slow to promise, quick to perform.

thrown over the face, so that it does not impede the breathing; other means may be taken as in fainting especially the use of sal-volatile to the nostrils.

These attacks may often be averted or lightened by taking a dose of mild aperient medicine when the first symptoms are felt, which is often some hours before the seizure occurs. It is advisable to keep children and nervous persons away from the sight of anything like epileptic or even hysterical attacks, as they often spread by mere sympathy. On the other hand, the presence of a firm calm cool person is a great assistance to the sufferer himself in regaining quietness and self-control.

Hysterics are caused by the mind and will losing power over the nerves, so that they act without control. The treatment is by giving fresh air, opening the clothing round the throat, and dashing cold water on the face to produce a shock and rouse the nervous system to its proper action. Any expression of sympathy encourages hysterical feeling, and should therefore be avoided; indeed it is often necessary to rouse the patient to a sense of injustice by showing some degree of anger; this calls the mind into action and reinstates its power over the nerves.

MINERAL POISONS.

Acids.—Several strong acid poisons are used for domestic purposes;—oxalic and muriatic acids for bleaching and removing ink-stains, oil of vitriol for cleaning metal, etc. These are sometimes taken by mistake for other things,—oxalic acid especially, from its resemblance to Epsom salts,—and produce rapidly fatal results by burning the coats of the throat and stomach. Such acids should be kept in the most diluted form, and, like all other poisons, distinctly labelled; they should never be left carelessly about, since they act with great severity on the external skin as well as the mucous membrane, and may do nearly as much mischief by being spilt as by being swallowed. In case of accidental poisoning by this means, large quantities of water must be given to dilute the acid, and alkaline substances to counteract it:—those most likely to be at hand are washing-soda, carbonate of soda, soap, potash, whiting, chalk, and magnesia.

Arsenic is a white powder sometimes mixed with food by mistake for baking-powder or carbonate of soda. It causes great heat in the mouth, throat, and stomach, with violent pain and sickness; and the only chance of saving life when it has been swallowed is to remove it at once by emetics, such as large quantities of warm water in which soap or mustard has been dissolved.

Phosphorus is something like arsenic in its effects, and must be removed in the same way. It is most frequently swallowed by young children who are allowed to get at lucifers and suck the poison off their tips.

VEGETABLE POISONS.

For these there is no antidote, and all efforts must be directed towards their removal from the stomach by emetics before they have time to mix with the blood:—these should be repeated again and again after sickness has been produced. The natural endeavour of the stomach to reject the poison may also be aided by tickling the back of the throat with a feather. When a large quantity of poison has been taken, the doctor will use the stomach-pump; but until medical help arrives, every means must be taken to disturb the ordinary action of the stomach and induce it to throw off the injurious substance.

Narcotics.—These are poisons that produce sickness, giddiness, drowsiness, and, finally, fatal stupor.

The drowsiness must be kept at bay by forcing the patient to walk about in the open air with some support on either side, by dashing cold water on the face, rubbing and shaking the body constantly, and giving mustard and vinegar, instead of mustard and water, as soon as the power of swallowing returns. A large mustard plaster should also be laid along the spine; and very strong coffee (a tea-cupful being made from three table-spoonfuls of fresh-ground coffee) should be administered.

The chief narcotic poisons are laudanum (which has sometimes been mistaken for tincture of rhubarb) opium, nightshade, poisonous fungi (mistaken for mushrooms), and ardent spirits. The so-called soothing syrups and cordials given to children during teething to make them sleep, are exceedingly dangerous, from their narcotic character; and children are frequently poisoned by over-doses.

Poisonous Plants and Berries are sometimes eaten by children who have not been carefully taught to dread their attractive appearance and frequently sweet taste.

Laburnum-Seeds are highly poisonous, causing great cramping pain and sickness. They must be removed by an emetic. Their dangerous character arises from their liability to be mistaken for peas, which they resemble in taste as well as look.

Yew-berries have a sweet taste and a semi-transparent appearance which tempts children.

Laurel-berries smell and taste like bitter almonds. They, like yew-berries, cause death in a very short time by destroying the nervous power of the body. Strong coffee or brandy-and-water should be given after they are ejected. The leaves of the laurel are also poisonous.

Monkshood is a tall plant, with much-divided dark

Better sit still than rise and fall.

green leaves and dark blue flowers, frequently grown in gardens. The long tapering root has been eaten by mistake for horse-radish; all the parts of the plant are virulently poisonous, producing intense sickness and speedy death unless at once removed from the stomach. The tapering form of the root really serves to distinguish it from the horse-radish, which is much more knotted and stem-like.

Buttercup-leaves and root have the same properties as monkshood, and require the same remedy. One kind has a bulbous root somewhat resembling small onions.

Belladonna, or deadly nightshade, is a shrub with dark foliage and bell-like blossoms of a peculiar livid-looking purple. The attractive part is the fruit, which is something like a plum, covered with a rich bloom. It is the most mischievous member of a family of plants that are all more or less dangerous, although one of them furnishes us with the potato: and the scent of all of them, resembling that of potato-water, is one of the best means of detecting them.

Foxglove is a very handsome plant, often grown in gardens, and is common in wild places. It causes faintness, purging, and cold perspiration, with loss of nervous power. Stimulants should be given after the poison is removed.

Hemlock in all its varieties somewhat resembles parsley, except in its scent; the true hemlock has a very peculiar musty odour. It is generally found in ditches, and is sometimes used medicinally for poultices. The poison attacks the brain, producing insensibility and delirium.

Arum, known in different parts of England as Cuckoo-pint, Lords-and-ladies, or Parson-in-pulpit, is found chiefly on ditch-banks or near water. It has broad glossy lily-like leaves springing at once from the root, often with dark blotches; and the flower is wrapped in a green sheath, which after a time decays and leaves the fruit visible in the form of berries, at first green, then shading off to yellow and scarlet. Every part of the plant is very poisonous.

CHAPTER XL.

MANAGEMENT OF CHILDREN.

Training.—All that can be done for a very young infant is to secure its bodily comfort and to begin its training in habit; it must be fed, washed, exercised, and put to sleep at regular and convenient times. This training should commence before even the appearance of intelligence;—it will tend to the comfort of the child, as well as that of those around it, for wrong treatment in these matters will be found to produce fretfulness, quite as surely as pain.

As the child grows, the senses develope and require training. The eyes must be gradually accustomed to light, and some object must be presented on which they may fix their attention; neglect of this induces squinting or weak sight. The ear must be exercised by soft, pleasant, musical sounds, that it may grow quick to distinguish; the hand must be gently encouraged to grasp, to feel, to point;—every bodily power, as it shows itself, must be allowed free play, without any undue strain.

From very early infancy, the disposition should be carefully tended, the growth of the better nature fostered, and evil repressed. The rooting out of bad dispositions requires a careful hand and much judgment; but it must be done, for the child's own sake, or such tendencies grow like weeds and choke every good impulse. The child must from the first be brought up on faith,—must learn to give up his own will to that of his parents without stopping to reason why, until he is old enough and educated enough to be responsible for his own actions. But the parents and governors must be worthy of obedience, or the training is useless in after-life; the child obeys because he is under restraint; the laws laid down for his guidance in childhood are not respected, and do not, as they ought, develope into principles by which he continues to be guided when all restraint is withdrawn;—the parents are more or less tyrants in his eyes. To train in obedience, the government must be firm, equal, and guided by fixed principles, not by the caprice or feeling of the moment; for a child learns to measure the strength of those who govern, as a high-spirited horse learns the power of the hand that holds the rein, and behaves accordingly. An infant must not be taken out of its bath, or be left half-dressed, because it cries; such a course is just a means of teaching it how to get its own way; and perseverance in the proper course gives an early and very useful training in submission. A strong-willed child is often allowed to disobey because the nurse is too indolent to battle with it, and thenceforth he is strengthened in evil. Obedience injudiciously secured will only last till the child is able to break away; but there is, generally speaking, more weak government than tyranny on the part of parents. If the parents, as guides and directors, inculcate principles which they do not themselves follow, their children quickly perceive the inconsistency, and lose respect for those who ought to be believed in as all that is good. Hence, deceit (acted. or spoken), passion (which is loss of power to govern), want of firmness, failure to keep a promise or threat—all exert a powerful effect against the governor.

Much of the moral teaching of young children may be given by means of stories and pictures. Good stories are better understood and remembered than precepts, and will be asked for again and again; by their means, most of the Christian virtues can be held up for imitation or admiration, most of the opposite vices shown in their true colours.

Kindness to animals should be early inculcated by teaching from pictures, and by keeping tame pets. The imagination may be exercised in regard to the birds or insects they see. Thus:—That little bird has come out for a walk, to get something nice for his little ones: if a cruel boy should catch him and put him in a cage, the little ones will have no father to bring them food; they and their mother will all be waiting for him:—if he goes home safe, they will all have dinner together, and then he will sing the little birds to sleep. Children should be taught to believe in the higher life of animals,—that they feel joy and shame, are selfish or generous, help each other in difficulty, and have some means of telling each other what they want.

Children require training in humility and consideration for others. They should never be allowed to give an order, but be taught to express their wish in the form of a request, as much to a servant as to a parent. They must be taught not to interrupt conversation, especially that of their elders; to give way to their playmates; to give as little trouble as possible, by putting away their clothes and toys and by keeping themselves clean; to eat whatever is provided for them, since they cannot provide for themselves. It is right, to some extent, to treat strong systematic dislike to particular kinds of food as springing from some physical cause; but fancies of the moment should not be gratified;—they will then soon cease to be expressed. If a dainty child persists in rejecting good and suitable food, he should be reminded of those who would gladly eat it, and be made to go without his meal. This course may cause a little temporary bodily weakness, but the habit of daintiness brings permanent weakness as its consequence, besides the constant fretting and annoyance. Good behaviour should be insisted upon *at all times*. Too often children are taught to do right or avoid wrong because someone is looking:—no course could be more pernicious, more certain to confuse all notions of right and wrong. From infancy, a child should be trained in the simple belief that the eye of God,—of a kind, loving, true and holy Father—is always watching him and all, beholding the evil and the good, and that this constant oversight is a cause of thanksgiving, not of terror.

Common Faults in Training.—Much mischief is unwittingly done by thoughtlessness as to the effects of certain courses of action. With good intention, but sad want of judgment, a nurse tells the child to beat the table against which he has struck his head; thus the feeling of resentment and revenge is implanted, and the little one learns to apply the same course of action to his playmates, should they hurt him wilfully or accidentally. Feelings of jealousy are roused by holding up one child as a pattern to others; and the one so set up becomes self-righteous, and is almost sure to acquire a dangerous thirst for approbation, which will lead him into questionable conduct for the sake of appearances:—on the other hand, when a naughty child is held up as a warning to others, they begin to think how good they are by comparison, and the offender feels himself degraded among his fellows long after he has repented of the wrong. Deceit is taught by inducing a child to take nauseous medicine on the false assurance that it is nice; and, once deceived, he will never again trust implicitly.

Punishments must be adapted to the constitution of the child;—pain that would be severe to a sensitive child would be nothing to a daring and hardy one; a look would in some cases have more effect than a beating. The degree of blame due to the child should also be considered. An accident should not be punished as if the mischief had been wilfully done, though it may sometimes be treated as the result of carelessness, and the child made to suffer some of the inconvenience caused by it. The childish sense of justice is outraged by ill-considered or hasty punishment, and accidental damage is hidden away in dread, instead of being frankly confessed.

Extreme care is necessary with imaginative children, to prevent their being frightened as a means of punishment; threats of unknown terror are most cruel, dwelling in the mind long afterwards, and laying the foundation for life-long nervousness. However unwilling a parent or nurse may be to use corporal punishment, it must be remembered that even a severe whipping is far less injurious, in its effects on the nervous system, than confinement in a dark closet, or terror produced by the constant dread of the unknown.

Fretfulness in children is caused either by bodily discomfort or derangement, or by want of mental employment;—craving for nourishment, over-feeding, headache or feverishness resulting from unwholesome food, teething, cold, and excessive heat are among the chief sources of discomfort. Often, therefore, fretfulness can be cured by attention to diet, dress, or temperature, or by a little simple medicine. When it arises from other causes, the attention must be adroitly turned to something interesting; but the child should not be allowed to see that the nurse is purposely trying to quiet him, or he will feel important, and begin to act the tyrant. Some nurses know of only one way of turning a fretful child's attention, —namely, the administration of a counter-irritant in the form of a smart slap. When this is resorted to hastily, without effort to ascertain the cause of fretfulness, it is an act of mere impatience and tyranny, and the child perceives the fact; but when the troublesome behaviour is obviously caused by evil temper and will not yield to occupation, the counter-irritant may be used as a last resource. The effect is to divert the child's attention from his own wishes and fanciful troubles to the real pain; as the slight suffering dies away, the fretfulness ceases, and the atmosphere of the nursery is made clear and bright by the infantine thunder-storm.

Employment.—Children should be encouraged to use their eyes, and notice all that passes before them. Habits of observation will thus be cultivated, and a world of amusement and imagination opened out. The nurse should not provide amusements and set them ready, but watch what the child himself attempts and help him to carry out his notion in such a manner as to amuse and instruct. Homely toys, which he himself has made or helped to make, will be found far more interesting than the most expensive ready-made kinds; for example, a set of chairs and tables, cut from cardboard with scissors, are far more attractive than those bought ready for use. Toys that are purchased should be such as will serve for many games; for infants, a soft ball, small enough to be grasped by the little hand, will afford a world of delight, not only by the rolling and tossing movements but by serving as an object for the exercise of the imagination; as it lies in the hand, it may represent a bird in the nest, or a baby in the cradle; swung by a string, it becomes a bird flying; led by a string it is a dog; and so on. Boxes of bricks can be turned to great account, for building is always a favourite game; and with these, too, the imagination will find exercise. Boxes of large letters, properly used, teach without trouble the alphabetic signs and many of their simple combinations. Beads for threading are favourite play things; they must not be very small, or they cannot be threaded without a needle, which causes trouble and some danger. Dolls are always the great playthings of girls,—their companions and imaginary children; and a little girl's disposition may soon be seen by observing how she treats them. Dolls' clothes should always be made at home, and capable of being taken off and put on; the making of clothing for a new doll gives interest and practice in needlework,—the dressing and undressing affords daily amusement. To girls who like dolls, a few patches of silk or cotton, odd pieces of braid, lace, or coloured trimming, or a few beads, are treasures, over which they will spend hours of ingenious contriving and designing. Picture-books are excellent for amusement, and may be an important means of training, even before the child can read. Every picture should have a story connected with it; after this has once been told, it will be asked for again and again; and in this way most valuable lessons are insensibly learned. Care must be taken in selecting the books;—nothing grotesque or terrifying should be allowed. Scripture stories conveyed in this way will always be found the first favourites, and the histories of Joseph and his brothers, Moses and David, appeal to the imagination as much as any fairy tale.

As soon as a child begins to tire of a plaything, it should be put out of sight; indeed, it is well to keep some things always in reserve, bringing out a set after several days or weeks, at the same time putting away something else to be brought out on a future special occasion; this ensures the charm of novelty.

A child of true childlike spirit is made most happy by being allowed to do something for its elders that seems really of use; it feels that it is rendered of some importance by such service, and learns, in time. to give real help. Many little errands of fetching and carrying may be devised, and carried out in the sight of the mother or nurse; and thus an active child, who would otherwise be in mischief, is made happy and encouraged in good-will.

One kind of real help even a little child can give, —and will, if properly taught; this is the putting away of its own toys. The nurse should watch for the first sign that the child is getting weary of its plaything, and invent some little plan or game with the packing away as its result:—thus, the bricks may be imagined to represent sheep,—they are tired, and must be carried to the fold (represented by the box); or the ball is a bird, and the little birds want it at home in the nest; and so on. The habit then becomes formed, and much trouble and waste are saved.

CHAPTER XLI.

MANAGEMENT OF CHILDREN (continued).

Food.—Milk, the natural food of infants, contains, in right proportion, all the substances necessary to the formation of every part of the body. When a

Never cry over spilt milk.

child has to be brought up by hand, it should be fed with cows' milk diluted with one part in four of warm water and slightly sweetened with sugar. The milk must be of uniform quality, from one cow; if good (and this will depend on the food and health of the animal) an infant may be fed entirely on it till three months old. When, as in most large towns, it is not possible to obtain thoroughly good milk from one cow, the Swiss preserved milk sold in tins is an excellent substitute, being always alike; directions for use are given on every tin. English milk is sold in the same form, but its quality is not so certain.

Though three months may be taken as the average time for feeding exclusively on milk, the constitution of the child may render some modification necessary. If the food is sufficient, the child will be plump and its flesh firm; if the food is defective, the flesh will be soft, perhaps bloated; constant restlessness and fretfulness will also show that there is want of proper nourishment. When more solid food is necessary, a table-spoonful of baked flour or plain unsweetened biscuit (powdered) should be mixed smooth with a tea-cupful of water, boiled for ten minutes, sweetened, and cooled with half a tea-cupful of milk; this will serve for two meals. The food should at first be given twice a day, with milk to intervene; but gradually it may be given oftener. Children should not be fed (or rather *starved*) on arrow-root, corn-flour, sago, or any other pure starchy food, which contains nothing to build up bone and muscle; many infants have dwindled to death from mistakes or ignorance in this matter, while many others have grown up with limbs too soft-boned and weak to support the weight of the body. Neither should baker's bread be used, because it is likely to contain alum, which is a strong astringent:—indeed, the crumb of any bread is unfit

Experience is the school for fools.

for infants' food, because it turns sour before it can be digested. The brown crust of home-made bread is as good as baked flour or biscuit-powder. Robb's biscuits make excellent food, on which children thrive and grow strong; they also have the advantage of being quickly prepared, and free from any risk of insufficient or excessive cooking, since no boiling is required. The biscuit is broken into a breakfast-cup, covered with boiling water, and allowed to stand for five minutes, with a plate over it to keep in the heat; then a little sugar is added, and two table-spoonfuls of milk, and the whole is stirred into a smooth batter. The only disadvantage of this food is its expense, which is great, as compared with baked flour or bread-crust.

After about six months, the food may be varied by porridge of milk and oatmeal, or oatmeal and barley-flour mixed. The meal must be sifted through a hair sieve, to keep back the coarser portions, which would irritate the digestive organs and be useless for nutrition; and the porridge must be well boiled. From six months until most of the teeth are cut, the diet may be gradually more and more varied; a little bread (or potato) and gravy, bread-and-butter, arrow-root, tapioca, or rice-pudding may be given; but no solid food is fit for a child till the teeth are ready to chew it properly. When these are developed, plain ordinary food can be taken; but up to the fifth or sixth year, soup (containing vegetables), porridge, bread-and-milk, bread-and-butter, and farinaceous puddings, should form the diet, rather than solid meat. Roast or boiled mutton is the best meat; beef, veal, and pork, are too hard of digestion for young children. Throughout childhood, the food should be of the simplest kind; pastry and cakes cause biliousness and destroy the healthy appetite for more nutritious things; flour puddings are heavy and indigestible; stimulants—even tea and coffee—are quite unfit for the delicate organs of children. The need of aperient medicine is avoided by giving a spoonful of treacle with the milk or other food of infants; with older children, gingerbread or stewed fruit will answer the same purpose, and be considered a treat.

Clothing.—Infants have very little strength,—not enough to support their own weight—and just as their muscular power is small, so is the power of heat-making within them. It is necessary therefore to prevent, by suitable clothing, the escape of the heat they are able to make. An infant's clothing should be soft and delicate. Fine linen only should be worn next the skin, which becomes chafed and raw by contact with rougher material; even cotton is unsuitable until the child is four or five months old. Next to the linen comes fine flannel, to keep in the heat; and cotton may be worn above. The clothing must be free enough to allow fair play to the limbs; tight clothing impedes the circulation and causes great discomfort and fretfulness. The feet easily become cold, being the part farthest from the centre of circulation; from earliest infancy, they should be covered with soft woollen socks. The head should be kept cool, at the same time that draughts are avoided; and hats should be soft and light. All clothing should be fastened with buttons, in preference to strings, which are likely to get entangled and to "cut" the flesh: where pins are absolutely necessary (and they should never be used except in such a case) they should be of the kind known as safety-pins. After children can walk, they are often insufficiently clothed about the chest, throat, arms, and legs. In winter, parents wrap themselves in woollen garments to the chin, the wrists, and the ancles, while their children's arms, False friends are worse than open enemies.

shoulders, and legs are left bare;—the consequence of the folly is felt in the affliction of the poor little victims by croup, sore-throat, and numberless other diseases. Children's winter dresses should come up to the throat and down to the hands; the stockings should be of woollen, and long enough to cover the knees. In summer, a covering of very light thin flannel should be worn next the skin, to keep up an equal temperature of the surface, with outer garments of linen, cotton, or other washing material, so made that movement is quite easy;—children suffer much in summer from the heat, and are made fretful and restless by it unless suitably clad.

Expensive materials are unfit for children: their age and character require simplicity; but extreme cleanliness and daintiness should always be studied. For this reason, washing materials are best, for boys as well as girls;—print, holland, and ticking for summer; serge and French merino for winter.

Cleanliness.—The utter helplessness of an infant in regard to performing any external function necessary to health, appeals powerfully to those around it. Carelessness on this point amounts to heartlessness, so soon are the results of neglect manifest. An infant's skin requires thorough washing twice a day;—if neglected it becomes raw. The child should be put into water at 96° to 100° of temperature, night and morning (as it gets older the heat will be reduced); curd soap should be used, but not applied to the face; the skin should be rubbed with a sponge, and the water allowed to flow plentifully over the neck and shoulders; and a soft towel should be used to dry the surface of the body thoroughly. Both in washing and drying the ears and the folds of the flesh round the neck and limbs will need special attention; and after drying, a little violet powder must be dusted into the folds to prevent chafing, or, if this chafing has actually caused rawness, a little fuller's earth must be mixed with soft water to a thin paste, and applied to the skin.

The temperature of the bath should be gradually lessened till it is only tepid, but much must depend on the season and the child's constitution. It is not advisable to plunge a young child into cold water, even in summer; while a very warm bath, by exciting the action of the skin, withdraws vital heat from the body and causes liability to cold. The practice of making the clothing hot before putting it on has the same effect as a hot bath; while putting it on unaired produces a shock, like the plunge in cold water. Infants should always be washed before a fire, and screened from draughts of cold air during the process. Their clothing should be changed often,—nothing being worn longer than two days,—and the skin and the clothes next the skin, kept dry. Chest diseases and sores are caused by neglect of frequent change of clothing. When older, children should be washed and dressed as soon as they are taken out of bed. It is a mischievous, as well as a lazy, practice to let them remain in their night-clothes; for they are insufficiently clad, and have about them all the damp of the night perspirations.

Sleep.—Children in good health, for the first weeks of their life sleep during the greater portion of the day and night; the exertion of being washed almost always causes a child to sleep soundly afterwards. While taking so much sleep, little waste occurs, and the growth of all the tissues goes on very rapidly. Till about four months old, a child should not be awake more than two hours at a time, and will generally sleep after washing, feeding, exercise of any kind, or being in the open air. From four to ten months. it should be accustomed to sleep after washing in the morning, and again during the afternoon: after ten months, one good nap in the day and going to bed early at night will be sufficient.

The times of food, exercise, etc., must be arranged to follow one sleep and conduce to another. After washing and feeding, the mother may safely reckon on a pretty long slumber on the baby's part;—again, after food and fresh air: the evening bath and food will make it ready for the evening sleep; and these points, well-managed, will secure greater regularity than many persons imagine. Rocking is a bad practice, as the child soon learns to require it constantly; using the limbs freely, especially in the open air, is the best means of creating the enjoyment of rest.

Want of sleep produces nervous restlessness, which, during teething, often ends in convulsions. The cause of inability to sleep should therefore be sought for and remedied if possible; it will generally be found to arise from cold, feverishness, want of nourishment (caused by unsuitable food), indigestion, or teething.

Exercise.—A baby's first exercise is taken in the arms of its nurse:—here it should be dandled firmly and gently, not on the knees, or with a jerking motion. When undressed, it should be allowed to stretch and move its limbs freely for a few minutes. After two months, it should be laid on its back frequently, for a few minutes at a time, on a soft counterpane spread on the floor for the purpose. This counterpane will become also the field of its future operations; here it will learn to turn and roll about, and finally creep and walk;—to exercise its powers and profit by the experience of many failures until it brings under perfect control the muscles by which the body is balanced in an upright position. The child should not be encouraged or taught to walk; it will teach itself by experiment if allowed to roll freely on the floor, and will then be in no danger of using its legs too soon, bending them with the weight of the body before they are strong enough to bear it.

When carried, young children should not be allowed to sit upright, but rather in a reclining posture, the back being supported: compression of the chest is likely to result from allowing them to sit up too soon or too much.

It must be remembered that perambulators afford an opportunity of taking air, but none of taking exercise, as the child's body is confined and nearly still.

Fresh Air is an absolute necessity. If there is any garden or space connected with the house, the children should romp and play in it for the greatest part of their waking time in fine weather; they will there be under the mother's eye, and have more freedom than is possible in the street. As a means of giving air to children, perambulators are very useful, if properly managed; because they not only relieve the mother from the labour of carrying the child, but enable her to take two little ones out at once. But they are often grossly misused by careless and irresponsible persons:—constantly we see children sitting exposed to the full glare of the sun, or to the cutting cold wind; or they are allowed to fall asleep, with the whole weight of the head hanging unsupported; or the nurse jolts the carriage over rough stones and irregular pavement, heedless of jarring shocks to the delicate nerves of her helpless charge. The child, when placed in the perambulator, should be well supported at the back and sides; and if it falls asleep (which should, however, be prevented, if possible) the position should be so altered that the head shall receive support; some rest should also be provided for the feet. Warmth should be well provided for, and shelter from the rays of the sun.

Children should be sheltered from exposure to draught, east winds, and damp air. The air they breathe should be warmed and enlivened by the vivifying sunlight:—many children take cold from sleeping in a room filled with damp evening air, the windows having been left open after sunset, when the atmosphere becomes misty and chilly.

Fresh air is of the greatest importance during teething and whooping-cough. In the latter disease, the air relieves the breathing and renders the fits of coughing less severe; in both cases, it braces the nerves, irritated by the pressure of the teeth or the exhaustion of coughing, and so renders the child less liable to convulsions.

CHAPTER XLII.

DOMESTIC SERVICE.

All service is honourable. The true, conscientious, hearty performance of duty "makes even drudgery divine." In olden times, the greatest nobles sent their sons and daughters as attendants to knights and ladies, that by serving they might learn to rule; and this was looked upon as the training best calculated to fit them for a life of usefulness and honour. Here they were called upon to do hard work;—the squire cleaned his master's armour, and saw that his horse was properly fed and groomed; the maiden kept her lady's rooms in order, and was employed in the preparation of food, medicine, clothing, and furniture. Here they were brought into contact with people of pure life and high breeding, learning thus the habits of thought and behaviour which make true politeness;

The man's the gold for a that.

and they were required to treat master and mistress with the greatest deference, to obey them cheerfully, defend them loyally, and sacrifice personal feeling and advantage to their interests. The beauty of such service is now too little regarded :—indeed, ignorant persons look upon it as degrading, and esteem more highly a life of so-called liberty, which puts no restraint on their habits, manners, amusements, or choice of companions. Girls get erroneous ideas respecting domestic service, too, from witnessing the evils which befal those who serve thoughtless or ignorant mistresses. When a master and mistress are worthy, the servant is treated as a reasonable being,—not as a "hand" or machine for doing a particular kind of work, but with kindly human interest; she too becomes interested in their concerns, and serves them faithfully as a friend. By intercourse with such people, she is refined in behaviour, thought, and feeling; she becomes accustomed to many things that were unattainable or unnecessary in her own home, and is fitted to go through life with more grace than another who, preferring to earn her living in a factory, or work-room, learns no well-ordered round of domestic duties, none of those habits of self-restraint and modesty, of elegance and taste, which will fit her one day to adorn a home of her own. A respectable and well-trained domestic servant is able to take a very much higher social position than one who in youth has chosen freedom from personal supervision and interest. A servant's position is always one of trust, in which the strictest honesty is a simple duty. She is admitted, of necessity, to the knowledge of many family affairs, which do not concern any one outside the house; she has the care of property, valuable to its owners, if not to others; and her first duty is to keep faith with those who trust her. This is the true spirit of good service, as well as of real nobility.

DUTIES OF SERVANTS.

The Cook in a house where only two servants are kept, prepares all the meals of the household, keeps clean the cooking utensils, the kitchen, scullery, larder, and all passages connected with them; cleans the hall and front steps in the morning, keeps the servants' bedroom in order, clears away dishes and plates after each meal (excepting tea) and presides at the servants' meals. If there are two housemaids, the cook does not clean the hall and steps; if there is a kitchenmaid she is relieved of the rougher portion of the work, such as lighting and keeping up fires, cleaning ranges, washing dishes, and scrubbing; she is then expected to know more of the finer kinds of cooking. As she rules in the kitchen among the other servants, she should behave so as to command their respect; and as she has entire management of the food, she should be thoughtful, conscientious, and trustworthy, as well as rigidly clean. Neglect of cleanliness in regard to the utensils will waste the food by rendering it disgusting or positively injurious:—for instance, a costly pudding will be utterly spoiled by boiling in a cloth that has been washed with soap, or has become musty through imperfect drying. For want of forethought in making up fires, many cooks waste a great deal of coal; while others throw away cinders that would help to make the fire when cooking is done. Methodical habits are necessary to manage the food regularly and to ensure pleasing the taste of the household; a cook should never *guess* the time for cooking, or the quantities of ingredients or flavouring; if she does the food will never be two days alike;—at one time too rich, at another too strongly

Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice.

flavoured, at another scarcely flavoured at all or half-raw,—the meals cannot be depended on, the food is wasted and there is no pleasure or cheerfulness at the table. The same results are entailed by want of punctuality, besides the evils of irritation, anxiety, and indigestion from hurried eating. Everything should be done according to a definite plan, and at a regular time, with the strictest care of both food and implements.

The Kitchenmaid works immediately under the direction of the cook, and is, as her name implies, the maid of the kitchen. If no scullery-maid is kept, she does the rough part of the work in the kitchen and scullery. She attends to the fires and grates, scrubs the floors, cleans the hall and steps, washes saucepans and dishes, and helps in the cooking, the vegetables especially being prepared by her. She must be an early riser, or everything will be thrown late by waiting for the fire; and if she is clean, willing, and quick, she will in a year or two be able to fit herself for the position of cook.

The Scullery-maid.—In large households, where much cooking is required, a scullery-maid is kept as a help to the kitchenmaid, who is thus left free to assist the cook more fully. The scullery-maid is employed chiefly in keeping the cooking utensils in order, washing dishes, and doing the roughest part of the cleaning.

The Housemaid takes charge of that part of the house inhabited by the family. She keeps clean the bedrooms, parlours, passages, and stairs, with the windows and furniture belonging to them, takes care of glass, china, plate, and linen, waits on the family and visitors, at table and elsewhere, and answers all bells, except that used by tradesmen. A good housemaid always gets the dirtier part of her work done

An idle brain is the devil's workshop.

when no one is about, and is always neat and ready to wait at table or to answer the call of a bell; she must, therefore, be up early and be quick and methodical; she must, when at heavy work, wear gloves and a large apron, which can be quickly slipped off if she should be summoned away to the parlour or the door. She must have a good eye for arrangement; otherwise she cannot replace furniture properly after sweeping, or lay the cloth tastefully for meals. Her manner must be pleasant and obliging, because she comes much in contact with the members of the family.

Before the breakfast-hour, grates must be cleaned, sitting-rooms aired, swept, and dusted, the table arranged, and the housemaid herself be neat and tidy, ready to carry in the breakfast and wait during the meal. After she has cleared away the breakfast things, and left the dining-room in order, she goes through the routine of making beds, and cleaning and arranging bedrooms, landings and staircases; this should be finished by the time visitors are likely to call. She should then clean silver and do any other dirty work; and after this, wash and dress herself. She then prepares the room and table for dinner, carries in the dishes, and waits at table; clears away the meal, sweeps up crumbs, and washes the glass and plate. Then she prepares tea, and afterwards washes the tea-things. In the evening, she attends again to the bedrooms, takes the supper into the dining-room, and clears away glass and silver as before. During the day she has kept up the fires in the rooms under her charge, and at night she places the fuel ready for morning use. She is often required to keep the table and bed linen in repair; she will at least have the care of it, and be responsible for its smooth and neat appearance. Directions for the performance of house-work will be found at page 40 and onwards.

Waiting at Table.—For this work, the maid should be daintily clean and neat, wearing a cap of net or lace and a muslin apron. Having placed all ready for the meal, she summons the family by ringing the dinner-bell, which usually stands in the hall, where it can be heard by every one. She then takes her place at the side-board and stands there quietly until the family is seated and grace said; then she goes to the left of each person who is seated before a dish and removes the covers, putting them on the side-board out of the way, and laying them on their sides to let the steam escape. Then she goes to the left of the carver and waits till he has filled one plate, when she takes it to the person for whom it is intended (holding it with a clean table-napkin) and returns for another and another till all are supplied. One of her first duties is to learn the order in which the members of the family are served; she will be told this the first time she waits. While the fish or meat is carved, those at table help each other to vegetables; but if a second servant is in the room, the vegetables are placed on the side-board and the dishes offered to each person as soon as his plate of meat or fish is set before him. The servant next takes beer, wine, or water to each, always going to the left, taking the glass on the tray, filling it with her right hand and handing it, on the tray, with her left. The waiter never leaves the room throughout the meal; all that she requires is brought to the door by the cook, if there is no other servant; but if there is a helper, she may now take away the covers. When nothing is needed, the maid retires to the side-board, and quietly stands, noticing what answers are given to the carver's enquiries as to whether any one will take a second helping. If more

Always complaining, never pitied.

is required, the plate with the knife and fork on it, is taken to the carver to be re-filled, carried back to the owner, and vegetables offered as before; if no more is wished for, the plate, still with the knife and fork on it, is taken to the side-board, and a clean one (warm or cold, according to the nature of the next course) is put in its place. When all the plates are changed, the carver gives the signal to remove the meat; the maid then takes a knife-tray in which a cloth is laid, and places the carving knife and fork in it, carefully keeping their points downward when removing them;—then the dish with the meat is taken from the room, being placed on a stand immediately outside, till the cook or other servant comes to carry it away. The next course is then placed on the table: if pie or pudding, it is placed before the lady of the house. The plates as filled are taken to each person, the waiter always returning with the clean plate which she takes in exchange to be supplied. The second course served, it is necessary to notice whether any one will take more, and, if the glasses are empty, to offer more of the beer, wine, or water: the other courses proceed in the same manner. The maid never offers anything that is on the table; and when it is necessary to call attention to the offer of vegetables, etc., or to enquire what beverage will be taken, must do it in a low tone, with the fewest possible words, so as to cause no interruption. She must be careful, too, to make no noise, and to take no notice of the conversation going on at the table.

When the meal is nearly over, the maid may take the opportunity of quietly removing the dirty plates to the stand outside the room; but she must not gather up knives and forks or pile up the plates, since this would cause noise, and is besides not fit work for the dining-room.

The Under-Housemaid is under the direction of the head housemaid, and does the roughest part of the housework, leaving her more at liberty to wait on the family and attend to the mending of house-linen. The under-housemaid scrubs, cleans grates and windows, and lights fires; but she seldom comes in contact with the family, beyond, occasionally helping to wait at meals.

The Parlour-maid attends on the family, waits at table, takes entire charge of the wine, fruit, table-linen, silver, glass and china, and does the lighter part of the cleaning in the drawing, and |dining-rooms, for which she is entirely responsible. If only one housemaid is kept, the work is fairly divided by the parlour-maid helping to make the beds. A parlour-maid takes the place of a footman, and has a pantry where are kept the table-linen, glass, and other things which are in her care.

The Laundry-maid comes little in contact with the other servants, except at meals, and is less under the eye of the mistress: because her duties are performed in a room especially devoted to washing and ironing. She washes all the apparel and the house-linen, does all the clear starching and ironing, and keeps in order the laundry and its utensils. Her work is skilled labour, and she gains generally, about the same wages as a cook. Her post is a responsible one; since, by carelessness or ignorance—by scorching, tearing, or the use of bleaching-powder—valuable lace or linen may be injured past remedy.

The Nurse has full charge of the young children, and of the rooms they occupy. If no nursery-maid is kept, she has some help from the mother or the older members of the family, who take charge of the little ones while the nurseries are being cleaned and during the nurse's absence, on errands to other parts of th house. In some houses an under-housemaid cleans the nurseries, the dusting and lighter work only falling to the nurse's share; but where the children are kept entirely in the nursery, apart from the rest of the family, a nursery-maid is a necessity, for all the meals will have to be brought from the kitchen, and the children must never be left alone. The nurse must rise early, so that the nursery fire may be burning brightly and the room aired, swept and dusted, before the children are up. She then gives the children their morning bath, and dresses them, throws off the bed-clothes and opens the windows of the night-nursery, to air the beds and room. Then comes breakfast, at which she presides. Afterwards the beds are made, the bath emptied, fresh water brought, and everything in the night-nursery is put in order; while this is being done, some member of the household should take care of the children; or, if the day-nursery can be seen by the nurse from the other room, they can be set to some amusement by themselves, while the baby takes its morning sleep. Next, the children are dressed and taken for an airing;—returning from their walk, they will be ready for dinner, after which they will again go out, or play in the garden or nursery. After the evening meal, they should be undressed,—the youngest first,—washed and put to bed well tired. Then the clothing should be examined and necessary slight repairs made, so that in the morning the children should not be kept half-dressed while buttons or strings are being sewn on.

Besides attending to the bodily comfort of her charge, the nurse should train them in habits of order, helpfulness and good behaviour; she should watch carefully their moral growth, encouraging good and checking evil, realizing that their whole future life will be influenced by her work, and that she is entrusted

A wager is a fool's argument.

with the most precious treasure her employers possess.

The Nurserymaid is assistant to the nurse. She does the work of the rooms, attends to fires, brings and clears away meals, and helps to wash and dress the children and to take care of them during their walks. If she is steady, active, and fond of children, she may soon learn the routine of the nursery and qualify herself for the situation of head nurse.

The Maid-of-all-Work holds a position, sometimes foolishly despised, but really an excellent one in the opportunities it affords of learning useful household duties. It is only under a mistress, who from carelessness or ignorance does not take the trouble to see that the work is properly done, that a willing active girl degenerates into a drudge or a slattern, instead of developing into a useful woman. Under a good mistress, such a girl gets practice in every branch of house-work, and learns something of plain cooking; while conscientious performance of duty will win her an amount of personal confidence and regard greater than can be obtained in a large household where many servants are kept. The order of her duties will be found on page 40.

CHAPTER XLIII.

INVESTMENT OF MONEY.

Money is said to be invested when, instead of being merely allowed to accumulate by the addition of savings, it is so used as to bring a profit to the owner. This profit may be gained by the owner himself using the money in some trade or undertaking,—by joining with others to form a company for the same purpose, If every one would mend one, all would be mended.

and employing a manager, or by lending money to those who have some such undertaking in hand, and who pay a certain agreed sum per annum for the loan, besides giving a pledge or security for its re-payment.

Shares.—An artisan, clerk, domestic servant, or other person whose time is fully occupied, cannot use his savings in the first way, because he is not free to manage a business, which would require constant oversight and probably not for a long time pay well enough to support a manager. But by joining in a company, an undertaking may be started (or one already started may be bought) extensive enough to pay the manager and leave some profit to the owners, who are meanwhile not actually dependent on it, but have only risked part of their spare money. A person using money thus, is called a shareholder, because he contributes a share of the expenses, and receives a share of the profits. In some cases, he is answerable for the debts the company may incur; but it is now the custom to "limit the liability"—that is, to provide that no member shall be answerable for a greater sum than he agrees at first to pay as his share. Any one who invests money in this way and afterwards wishes to withdraw from the undertaking, must do so by selling his right in it to some one else, not by asking the company to give him back his money; if he cannot easily find a customer for his share, he must offer to take less than it cost him:—perhaps he may not be able to sell it at all; but if the undertaking is a profitable one, he may get a great deal more than it cost him. Thus, if the share cost him £20, and the undertaking is fairly successful, his profit should be about £1 per year; if it is unprofitable, he would of course wish to get his money back again. This he cannot do; the only resource is to find some one who believes that there will some day be a good profit, and is willing to take the risk and wait; such a person may think it worth while to give £10 or £15 for the right to the chance. But if the profits amount to £2 or £3 in the year, the share is worth (if sold) twice or thrice what it cost when the profit was only £1.

Shares in well-established railway, shipping, water, and gas companies, or in any undertaking for supplying a general want, are safe and profitable investments. In other undertakings the risk is great of losing all the money invested, even though the object of the company may be an excellent one. Shares in mines, though exceedingly profitable at times, are particularly fraught with danger, because the outlay for machinery and labour must be great, while it is quite possible that the mineral sought may not be found. The risk is usually great when any undertaking promises to pay more than six or seven per cent. per annum;—the greater the possible profit, the higher the risk.

Loans.—Instead of taking shares, a person may lend money to others who need it, and who are willing to pay an annual sum for the use of it, and pledge some property for its return. For instance, a tradesman who owns a house or land worth £500, may require a large sum of money at once to extend his business; he could perhaps sell his house in order to get the money, but he does not wish to give it up in this way; he therefore borrows £400, promising to pay the lender a certain sum as interest (usually four or five per cent.) every year till he can repay the £400. If the borrower fails to pay this interest, the lender takes possession of the house; and, usually, the lender can demand re-payment or possession of the house at a few months' notice, as may be agreed. This is called lending money on *Mortgage*. The house

Everything comes to him who waits.

or land should always be of greater value than the money lent, or it is not a good security.

A company sometimes borrows money on interest, pledging as security the machinery, buildings, etc., used in the undertaking. The right to share in such interest and security can be bought and sold like any other shares. This kind of investment is called buying *Debentures*. Should the undertaking fail, the shareholders are debtors to the debenture-holders, and must pay them in full from the sale of the buildings, machinery, etc., before taking anything for themselves.

The Funds, or Government Stocks, afford a perfectly safe investment. The Government has at times borrowed money of individuals, for various national undertakings, at three or four per cent. interest, the income derived by the taxes being the security for its safety. No one can claim re-payment of the money so lent, but he can sell the right to receive the interest; and buying this right is called investing in the Stocks or Funds. Like Shares, Stocks vary in price, because sometimes many people want ready money, and will then sell this right for less than it originally cost; while, if many people have spare money and wish to buy the right, they will raise the price by a kind of competition. Hence, £100 Stock, entitling its owner to 3½ per annum interest, can be bought for sums varying from £90 to £98: the interest is certain, but if the owner should wish to get back the money invested, he must sell his right, at the risk of being able to get as much as he gave for it.

Annuities afford a means of providing for old age. They are of two kinds, immediate and deferred; if immediate, the annuity commences directly the purchase-money is paid; if deferred, the payment commences at a future period—for instance, when the purchaser reaches the age of sixty. The purchase-money is sunk, or lost to the annuitant and his relatives, in consideration of the receipt of a yearly sum during his life. The advantage of this plan of investment is, that the sum received annually is greater than it would be if the money were simply lent at interest. Money that has been accumulating at interest during the working portion of the life is often sunk in this manner. Deferred Annuities are purchased by the payment of one sum, or by annual payments during a certain number of years. The earlier in life the payment is made, and the later the age at which the annuity is to commence, the less will be the purchase-money;—deferred annuities purchased early in life are very profitable. They are sometimes purchased on the birth of a child. They can be bought by weekly, fortnightly, monthly, quarterly, or half-yearly payments; and are generally receivable half-yearly or monthly. If it is arranged that the purchase-money shall be returned should the annuitant die before reaching the age at which the first payment becomes due, a higher rate of purchase is charged.

Annuities up to £50 are granted in connection with the Post Office. By the Government rates, £10 a year, to commence at sixty, may be secured by the payment of £24 3s. 4d. for a man, or £32 8s. 4d. for a woman, at the age of thirty; or by paying eight shillings every month from thirty to sixty years of age, a man may secure £2 7s. 3d., a woman £1 16s. 7d. per month for the remainder of the life. Some companies of good standing also grant annuities, without limit as to sum, and at lower rates; among these may be mentioned the National Provident Society, which divides all its profits among its members, and returns to the family all the money paid, should the member die before the annuity becomes due.

Life Insurance is a means of providing a fund for the use of a family in case of the death of its head. Insurance may be effected at the Post Office for sums of not less than £20 or more than £100, for which the premiums may be paid every year, half-yearly, quarter, month, fortnight, or week. The earlier in life the insurance is effected, the less is the premium;—thus to insure £100, a man aged twenty pays £1 16s. 2d. per annum; if he waits till he is thirty, he must pay £2 6s. 7d. for the same sum. If it is arranged that payment of premium shall cease at the age of sixty, the rate is a little higher;—a man aged twenty would have to pay £1 19s. 6d., or at thirty, £2 13s. 10d. Insurance may also be effected by one payment, which also varies according to the age of the insurer:—£37 paid down at twenty will secure £100 at death; at forty, £50 16s. 9d. is required. Or by paying two shillings a month, beginning at twenty, nearly £30 may be secured at death; beginning at thirty, £20; beginning at thirty-five, £15. A sum of money payable on attaining a certain age may also be insured in a similar way; this is called a deferred sum. Insurance companies unconnected with the Government will insure larger sums, and the rates do not differ much; in most of these about one-third of the premiums paid will be restored should the insurer wish to withdraw; but he must have been insured not less than five years. The Post-office Savings' Bank is very convenient for those who have a reserve fund for occasional expenses and contingencies. Every deposit must amount to one shilling:—odd pence are not accepted. Interest is given at the rate of two-and-a-half per cent. on every complete pound. The money can be deposited at almost any Post-office in

When things come to the worst, they begin to mend.

the kingdom, and obtained, if needed, within three days of the time it is asked for, and at any Post-office. Not more than £30 may be deposited in one year, nor more than £150 in all; this sum will, however, be allowed to lie at interest till it amounts to £200, when interest will cease.

Money invested in the Savings' Bank, Insurances, and Annuities, connected with the Post Office, is placed in the hands of the Government, and is perfectly safe. The object of these institutions is to encourage the accumulation of small sums until the owners have sufficient capital to invest more profitably, and to give perfect security to persons of small means and provident habits.

Deposits in Building Societies are common and safe investments. Interest at four or five per cent. is given, as for money lent to railway or other companies.

Building Societies, if well managed, afford safe and profitable modes of investment. A working man may use his regular savings in the purchase of shares, which are paid for by weekly or monthly instalments. He then becomes entitled to a building site, which he may use, or sell to another member. The land costs him less than it would if bought in the ordinary way, because the Society buys a large plot, and divides it among the members. He may immediately begin to build, the Society furnishing him with the neccessary money on the security of the piece of land; and he refunds the money so advanced by an annual payment, frequently no more than the rent of the house would amount to. At the end of a few years, the loan being paid, the land is free from mortgage and becomes, with the house, absolutely the property of the builder. Many artisans have acquired house property in this way, the payments being quite within the reach of steady workmen.

He that would thrive must rise at five;

House-property should pay six per cent. on the money it costs: but it is not a convenient mode of investment for workmen who have to change their place of abode to suit their employment. Careless tenants damage the property, and it is necessary to pay an agent to collect the rents and look after it.

Benefit Societies afford a means of providing against sickness and age, or for a family should the bread-winner die while the children are young. The principle is that of co-operation. The subscriptions of the members in health support those who are sick, and the money paid by fathers who are strong and able helps the orphans of those who die in the prime of life. Unfortunately, many such societies are based on false reckonings, and cases are frequent of workmen losing all their investments by their failure. A great disadvantage, too, is that their business meetings are held at public-houses, and money is consequently spent in needless drinking, which would suffice in a life-time to make a handsome provision for age or death. The abuses of these societies led the Government to establish Post-Office Savings' Banks and Insurances for the protection of provident working men.

There are, however, a few Societies formed and conducted on sound principles. Among the best are the Foresters, the Odd-Fellows, and the Mutual Provident Alliance.* The Freemasons, though not strictly forming a benefit society, have many beneficent institutions.

Co-operative Societies, when established to supply the necessaries of life, are generally successful. Their object is, generally, to supply the members with

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* The Head Office of this Society is in Albion Place, Blackfriars. The others have branches and members in nearly all towns.

He that has thriven may lie till seven.

articles usually bought of a shopkeeper and to save the amount of the shopkeeper's profit; but in many cases they supply goods also to any one who will purchase. A co-operative association is a body of amateur traders who subscribe money enough to open a shop, and divide the profits at regular intervals :—as each subscriber has his own affairs to occupy him, a manager is paid to conduct the business, the accounts only being supervised by the members.

CHAPTER XLIV.

DISINFECTANTS AND DEODORIZERS.

Disinfectants are substances which evolve gases that combine with other poisonous gases and neutralize their deadly effects;—they destroy infection. Deodorizers are substances that in the same way destroy bad smell. Most deodorizers are also disinfectants; unless this is the case, they are of little use, since they only overpower the unpleasant odour which indicates the presence of the poison,—they do not destroy the poison itself. Poisonous gases may come from the breath or skin of a person suffering under an infectious disorder, or from decaying substances, animal or vegetable.

Deodorizers.—Of these, charcoal and perfectly dry earth or ashes are the best: the first is also a powerful disinfectant. Decaying substances, or anything that has a bad smell, should be covered with ashes before it is stirred for removal, or if it cannot possibly be removed; this is the principle of the earth-closets now so generally recommended.

Disinfectants.—(1) The best and cheapest disinfectant is fresh air: it renders poison-gases harmless by diluting it, as the waters of a lake would render harmless a cupful of the strongest poison thrown into it. In a sick room whence infection might be carried, the current of air should be from the open windows of the staircase, through the door and open windows of the room;—it should never be driven from the room through the house, if the room-windows only are open. Miss Nightingale, in "Notes on Nursing" says "Let no one ever depend on fumigations, disinfectants, and the like, for purifying the air. The offensive thing, not its smell, must be removed. A celebrated medical lecturer began, one day, thus:—'Fumigations are of essential importance;—they make such an abominable smell that they compel you to open the windows.'"

(2) Charcoal is a powerful deodorizer and disinfectant; by arresting putrefaction it stops the formation of that which produces poison-gas. A layer of charcoal powder enclosed in thin muslin is often, for this reason, laid on putrid sores: a bag of it, worn as a respirator, is a safeguard for those who are obliged to go where malignant fever prevails or to go near the bodies of those who have died from infectious diseases. Smells are instantly removed by taking into the room a shovel-ful of heated wood-charcoal, its efficacy being increased by heat; but as its fumes are suffocating, it can be used red-hot in uninhabited rooms only. A coarse bag or net of charcoal may be placed over any sink or drain which produces a foul smell, untill the annoyance can be remedied.

(3) A cheap disinfectant and deodorizer is made by dissolving two ounces of sugar of lead in a pint of water and adding two ounces of aquafortis. The bottle should be labelled Poison. A very small quantity of the mixture should be used to remove offensiveness from any thing in the sick room; and a sheet,

kept wet with it, may be hung before the room-door, to prevent infected air from passing into the house.

(4) Chloride of lime is a common and cheap disinfectant; it should be sprinkled on the floor, and vessels containing it should be placed about the house. If allowed to touch or remain near any carpet, curtain, etc., it will destroy the colour and weaken the fabric; but such articles should be removed from the neighbourhood of the sick; they only absorb bad air. It also rusts steel and iron work; and if poured down drains with iron pipes will corrode them so as to cause leakage, thus causing more mischief than it cures.

(5.) Carbolic acid is a cheap and powerful disinfectant, and can be had with very little trouble. It is sold as a powder in shilling packets, containing about one pound. It may be thrown down drains to kill the effluvia arising after infectious matter from the sick room has been poured away; or to sprinkle on the floor of infected chambers before they are swept; to wash floors, bedding, and clothing, and to stand about in various parts of the dwelling, to prevent the spread of infection.

(6.) Sulphur fumigation can only be performed in a closed empty room, as the fumes are both bleaching and suffocating. A quarter-of-a-pound of sulphur should be put into an old iron vessel, and set alight; it should be left standing on an iron plate, and the room kept closed for three or four hours; then the windows should be freely opened to allow the escape of the smell. This is used, generally rather as a means of getting rid of offensive insects than as a disinfectant.

APPENDIX.

USEFUL RECIPES.

COOKING.

Bread.—Put seven pounds (two quarterns) of flour mixed with a table-spoonful of salt, in a large dry kneading pan or trough, placed at a convenient height for kneading. Dissolve two ounces of German yeast in a quart of water rather warmer than new milk; make a hollow in the middle of the flour, and into this stir the yeast with a wooden spoon, mixing it with enough flour to form a batter. Go on mixing with the hand, working in the flour from the edges of the hollow, till the whole is used up, forming dry masses of dough. Knead these firmly together into one mass, with the knuckles of both firmly-closed hands, for ten minutes; if it sticks to the pan or the hands, either the flour is in fault or the dough is too wet, and a little more dry flour must be kneaded in; but if all is right, the dough will be firm and all the dry flour worked up. It must now stand, covered with a cloth, for nearly two hours by the side or front of the fire. When it has risen nearly to the top of the pan, cut it into two portions; knead each on a pie-board with a little flour, and put it into a warm floured tin, pressing it well down, and taking care that the tin is only half filled, to allow for rising in the oven; then prick the dough through to the bottom four or five times with a fork, and let it stand on the fender to rise for ten minutes. Put it into a brisk oven, and bake for two hours; take care that the oven-door is kept closed for half an hour after the bread is put in, and that the heat is slackened for the last half-hour. When taken out, edge the loaves up on a clean table or dresser, to allow the air to reach every part of the crust and prevent its turning soft.

Bread is kept moist by being shut closely in an earthenware pan; but as this destroys the crispness of the crust, many people prefer to keep it on a wooden shelf in a dry place.

Porridge.—A quart of water, a teaspoonful of salt, and five handfuls of oatmeal (as much as the hand can grasp). Let the water boil, sprinkle in the meal with the left hand, stirring briskly with a stick or wooden spoon to prevent knots; let it boil for twenty minutes, pour into plates, and allow it to cool a little. It is eaten with milk or treacle.

Cakes.—*Plain Seed Cake.*—A quartern of dough well risen, spread it flat with the hands on a kneading board, but do not use a rolling pin; spread over its surface six ounces of beef dripping, lard, or butter, two ounces of carraway seeds, and a quarter of a pound of brown sugar. Knead it for fifteen minutes, until the seeds are worked through every part of the dough. Place it in a greased or floured tin, let it stand in a warm place for half an hour or forty minutes, then bake for two hours in a brisk oven.

A Richer Seed Cake.—Half pound of butter, the same quantity of lard, four eggs, half pound of sifted sugar, one pound of flour (into which sprinkle, while dry, a tea spoonful of baking powder), and one ounce of carraway seeds. Beat the butter and lard with a wooden spoon till of the consistency of cream, gradually add the flour, sugar, and seeds. Whisk the eggs for ten minutes, add them to the other ingredients, and beat the whole for ten minutes more. Bake in a buttered tin for two hours.

Butter may be used instead of lard if preferred.

Plain Currant Cake.—Proceed in the same way as if making a plain seed cake, leaving out the seeds, and adding instead four ounces of currants, and one ounce of candied peel cut very small.

A Richer Currant Cake.—Use the same ingredients as for the richer seed cake, excepting the seeds; add instead one and a half ounces of candied peel and four ounces of currants. Sultana raisins cut in half may be used instead of currants.

Tea Cakes.—Three and a half pounds of flour (one quartern), four ounces of moist sugar, half-a-pound of lard or butter, a tea spoonful of salt (unless salt butter be used), a pint of milk, and two ounces of German dried yeast.

Mix the yeast smooth in a tea cupful of warm milk or water. Rub the butter or lard into the flour, stir the sugar into the milk, then make a hole in the middle of the flour and pour in the yeast and milk, the latter lukewarm, mixing the flour with it with the hand until the whole is formed into a dough; knead with both hands for ten minutes. Cover with a cloth and put in a warm place for two hours to rise. Cut the dough into eight or ten portions. Knead each into shape, roll into cakes of about two inches in thickness, place on a flat baking tin, stand in a warm place for fifteen minutes to rise, bake in a brisk oven for twenty minutes. When removed from the oven the top of each should be brushed over with a little butter.

These may be varied by adding two ounces of carraway seeds, the same quantity of candied peel cut small, or half-a-pound of currants. They can be kept for a week without being too stale.

Milk Scones.—Two pounds of flour, a tea spoonful of baking powder, the same quantity of salt, four ounces of lard or butter, and sufficient milk to knead the whole into a dough. Sour milk or butter milk is best for the purpose. Mix the baking powder with the dry flour, rub in the lard, add the milk, knead lightly, divide into six, roll each into a cake one and a half inches thick, and bake in a brisk oven for twenty-five minutes.

These are best eaten on the day on which they are made or the day after.

Oat Cake.—Mix oatmeal and water to a stiff dough, roll out into cakes of about a quarter of an inch in thickness in plenty of dry meal, bake on a plate of thick iron placed above a perfectly clear fire. When hard, place in front of the fire for a few minutes to crisp. Keep in a closely covered tin to exclude the air and preserve the crispness. Oatcake should not be baked darker in colour than the meal from which it is made, otherwise it acquires a burnt flavour.

Ginger Bread.—One pound of flour, four ounces of dripping, lard, or butter, one ounce of ground ginger, a dessert spoonful of baking powder, six ounces of treacle, and an ounce of candied peel cut small. Mix the baking powder with the dry flour, add the candied peel. Melt the lard and the treacle together, adding to them half a tea cupful of water. Mix the flour with the melted treacle till the whole is a smooth batter. Pour into a greased tin and bake in a brisk oven for an hour.

Soup should always be made in a tightly-closed vessel, except when it contains any vegetable of the cabbage kind, when it is necessary to lift the lid occasionally to allow the strong flavour to escape. If stock is to be made from bones, they should be broken up, put to simmer the day before the soup is wanted, and when they show by their white appearance that all their gelatine is extracted, removed by straining. If any fat shows itself on the top of the soup, it should be removed—a process which can best be performed when it is cold, and before putting in the vegetables. The vegetables should be shred very fine, or grated if possible ; and when a variety is used, they should be proportionately mixed, so that the flavour of no one of them is perceptible above that of the others.

The liquor in which meat, fowl, or rabbit has been boiled, grated bread-crusts, cold potatoes rubbed smooth, sago, rice, corn-flour, pea-flour, barley-flour, are all useful ; and, except fat, most of the odds and ends, too often wasted, can be utilised in soup-making.

Vegetable soups may be flavoured with a little thyme, marjoram, or celery seed ; pea-soup is agreeably flavoured with powdered dry mint, and coloured with a little burnt onion. Cloves, mace, and pepper may be used as flavourings when the soup contains no vegetables.

Vegetable Soups.— To make these from the liquor in which meat has been boiled, all that is required is to add the vegetables, finely shred, and to let it simmer slowly for several hours. When there is but a very small quantity of stock, put into a stewpan about three ounces of dripping, and when it boils, dredge into it two table spoonfuls of flour, which will enable it to unite with the soup instead of rising to the top ; an onion sliced very thin, is fried in the mixture for ten minutes, and then any stock that can be obtained is made boiling hot and poured in. A large carrot and two good-sized turnips, grated, a little celery and half a cabbage finely shred, and green peas or any other vegetable that can be obtained, are next added; and the whole is then turned into a large saucepan or soup-kettle and simmered for two hours. Seasoning according to taste.

Pea soup can be made either of split peas or pea-flour. Split peas must be reduced to a pulp, rendering the soup of the consistency of thick cream.

Fish Soup.—Take the heads, fins, tails, and bones of any fresh white fish, as cod, ling, turbot, plaice, or haddock, pack them in an earthenware jar, or an ordinary saucepan or stewpan, with sufficient water to cover them well; add a blade of mace, half-a-dozen crushed pepper corns and two or three cloves; cover close and stew slowly for eight or nine hours, then strain. To a quart of the stock thus obtained add an equal quantity of water, an onion, and half-a-dozen parsley leaves chopped fine; simmer for' an hour, and just before serving throw in a piece of butter of the size of a small egg, any pieces of fish which may have been left from a previous dinner, and for thickening, a dessert spoonful of corn flour or ordinary wheaten flour mixed smooth in a little water. Season with pepper and salt.

The stock should be prepared on the day on which fish has been cooked; it will keep good for two or three days.

Fish soup is excellent for invalids.

Eel Soup.—A pound of eels; wash, and cut them up in slices, stew in a closely covered vessel for three hours with three pints of water, two blades of mace, two or three cloves, an onion, and a tea spoonful of chopped parsley. Season with pepper and salt, thicken with a dessert spoonful of flour or corn flour, and serve with toast cut in small pieces.

Potato Soup.—A pound of cold potatoes (about seven of the ordinary size); crush them quite smooth and put them into a saucepan with a pint of milk, a good sized onion shred fine, a blade of mace (if at hand), pepper, and salt. Stir till the whole boils, then add a pint of water and a piece of butter the size of a walnut, and let it simmer until the onion is cooked. Mashed potatoes serve quite as well as whole. This soup affords a good supper dish, is economical, and quickly prepared.

Vegetable Marrow Soup.—Pare a vegetable marrow, remove the seeds, and boil it till soft, or use that which has been left from a previous day's dinner. Beat it to a pulp, add to it a pint of milk, a blade of mace for flavour, an onion cut very small, and a pint of water, or of the stock made by boiling down meat bones. Any remains of melted butter sauce may also be added (this being usually served with vegetable marrow will often be left from dinner). Let the whole simmer gently for an hour in a closely covered vessel, stirring frequently till the soup is free from lumps; season with pepper and salt. A piece of butter may be added, but is not necessary.

Chestnut Soup.—One pound of sweet chestnuts; bake, and remove the husk. Pound kernels to a pulp by mixing with them a little milk, add to this pulp a pint of milk and a quart of stock; the best for the purpose is that made by boiling bones of veal. If no stock is at hand use a quart of milk and a pint of water ; add an onion finely shred, a blade of mace, pepper, and salt. Simmer for an hour.

This is a highly nutritive soup.

Haricot Bean Soup.—Two quarts of the liquor in which ham, bacon, or salt pork has been boiled, from which the scum but not the fat has been removed. A quart of white haricot beans, and a good sized onion. Boil the beans in a little of the stock till quite soft, beat to a pulp, and add it to the remainder of the stock with the onion finely shred. Simmer for two hours. Season with pepper and salt. This soup will be rendered more digestible by being strained through a colander before serving, as this will remove the husks of the beans.

Another Method.—Use skim milk instead of the stock, and add a little mace for flavouring.

Turnip Soup.—Three ounces of butter or dripping ; fry in this a good sized onion ; dredge into the fat, while frying, two table spoonfuls of flour ; add a quart of stock from bones of meat or of water of the latter, any remains of gravy that may be at hand, or half a tea spoonful of Liebig's extract of meat may be added. Shred two good sized onions, and grate two good sized turnips into the liquor. Simmer for two hours. Season with pepper and salt.

Pea Soup.—The stock made by boiling bones of roast beef, or the liquor in which beef has been boiled, is best for this purpose. Soak a quart of split peas over night, boil in a little of the stock till soft, beat to a pulp, and add to them two quarts of the liquor, an onion finely shred, and a grated carrot. Simmer for two hours, serve with toast cut into small slices, and dried mint rubbed to a powder.

Sago, Tapioca, or Vermicelli Soup.—The soups are prepared from stock obtained by slowly stewing bones and remnants of meat in a closely covered vessel for twelve or fourteen hours. The stock thus obtained should be strained, allowed to stand till cold, and then have the fat removed.

Shin of beef stewed in the oven in four or five quarts of water affords excellent stock, while the meat may be used for other purposes.

Six ounces of sago or tapioca, add to two quarts of stock, flavour with two or three cloves, a blade of mace, pepper and salt. Simmer for half-an-hour.

For vermicelli soup, plunge six ounces of vermicelli into boiling water for ten minutes, drain it, and when cold add it to two quarts of boiling stock ; simmer for half-an-hour, stirring frequently, and season.

Mutton Broth.—The liquor in which a joint of mutton has been boiled, a neck of mutton weighing about two pounds, the thin shank of the leg, after the fleshy part has been cut away for cutlets or for roasting, or a sheep's head answers best for this purpose.

Put the meat into cold water, using three pints to a pound. To each pint of water or stock add a table spoonful of rice or barley, a leaf or two of finely chopped parsley, and a table spoonful of grated turnip. If for an invalid, rice only must be used. Simmer for three hours. Skim off the fat and serve.

Beef Broth.—The liquor in which fresh beef has been boiled; to two quarts add a turnip grated, a carrot, and a tea cupful of dried green peas, or split peas, soaked over night. Simmer for three hours, season with pepper and salt.

The liquor in which salt beef has been boiled is most suitable for making pea-soup.

To Boil Fish, place it in the fish kettle with cold water enough to cover it, in which salt is dissolved at the rate of a tea spoonful to a quart; let it come to the boiling point slowly, and simmer for five minutes, when it will be quite tender, and leave the bone easily. The kettle is always fitted with a strainer, on which the fish can be lifted out without breaking. The size of the fish will regulate the quantity of water required to cover it, and consequently the time necessary to reach boiling point. If the fish is whole, the skin will preserve its juices; if only a portion is cooked, it should be boiled in a cloth for this purpose.

When done, the fish is lifted out on the strainer and allowed to drain, then slipped gently on to a dish fitted with an earthenware drainer, over which a linen napkin is folded in several thicknesses, to absorb any wet that may remain.

To Fry Fish great care is needed, or the fat becomes too hot, and causes disagreeable flavours and odours. It must always be lifted with a fish-slice to prevent breaking, and carefully drained from the fat in which it is fried. A very good plan is to lay it on a sheet of clean white paper before putting it on the dish for table.

The most suitable fish for frying are soles, plaice (cut in pieces), mackerel, fresh herrings, and sprats; the last are so oily that no fat is needed for cooking them.

Slices of salmon can be broiled or grilled; haddock, herring and mackerel can be treated in the same way, but being dry, require to be split open after cooking, and lightly buttered.

Fried Sole.—Skin, wash, remove the fins, and dry carefully, dust over with a little flour, dip in the white of an egg, and cover with bread crumbs; place in a frying-pan in boiling dripping sufficient to cover—keep this boiling, but do not let it burn. When one side of the fish is browned, turn with a tin slice without breaking, and brown the other. Lift it out carefully, and lay it on a piece of folded white paper before the fire to crisp and to drain off the fat. Serve on a clean napkin, spread neatly on a dish.

Boiled Soles are not skinned.

Sauce for Fish is usually melted butter, either plain or with the addition of anchovy-sauce, shrimps, oysters, hard-boiled eggs, or parsley.

Fish Cake.—The remains of any cold fish, picked carefully from the bones; pound up smooth, with an equal quantity of cold potatoes, a small onion, and two or three parsley leaves chopped small; season with pepper and salt, and mould into small thick cakes about three inches in diameter; fry till of a light brown in two ounces of beef dripping or lard; or bake in a brisk oven, using the same quantity of dripping as for frying.

Another Method.—Add the white of an egg to the fish and potatoes, kneading all well together and making up into cakes as before. Prepare a gravy by stewing the bones and head of the fish for two hours in as much water as will cover them, strain this gravy, season it, and stew the fish cakes in it for half-an-hour.

Baked Herrings.—One dozen fresh herrings washed thoroughly. Cut off the heads, tails, and fins, and remove the inside and back bone, taking care to tear the flesh as little as possible; roll up each herring closely from the tail to the head, pack them in layers in a baking dish, placing the soft roes at intervals. Add an ounce of butter broken into very small pieces, one or two cloves, a few pepper corns, and pepper and salt; cover with water and bake in a moderate oven for one hour and a half. When ready to remove from the oven, pour over them half-a-pint of brown vinegar. They may be eaten cold or hot.

Baked Mackerel or Sprats.—Wash the mackerel thoroughly, remove the insides and pack lengthways in a baking dish; place five or six pieces of butter of the size of a nut here and there; add four or five cloves, a few pepper corns, pepper and salt; pour on cold water, but do not quite cover them; bake for two hours; when cooked pour over them brown vinegar. Sprats may be baked in the same way as mackerel, but being more oily do not require butter.

Baked Flounders or Haddock.—Wash the fish well, remove the insides, pack in a dripping pan or shallow earthenware dish. To the pound of fish add an ounce of butter, or dripping broken up into small pieces, and a tea spoonful of chopped parsley; season with pepper and salt; dredge the surface with a dessert spoonful of flour; and pour over the whole half a tea cupful of water. Bake for an hour, and serve. Slices of fat bacon may be used instead of butter or dripping; they should be cut thin and spread over the top of the fish.

To Roast a Joint of Meat.—Choose tender fleshy joints, with fat intermixed; sinewy parts are rendered hard and useless as food by the roasting process. Have a brisk clear fire sufficiently large to cook the joint without using fresh fuel. Hang the meat close to the fire for a few minutes, giving it just sufficient room to turn round; this will harden the albumen on the outside, and thus a coat will be formed which will prevent the escape of the juices. When it is of a rich dark brown colour, and glazed, move it back about three inches, otherwiso the outside will burn before the inner portions are cooked. Let the fat drop into a large dripping pan placed underneath, and about every ten minutes baste the joint by pouring over it some of the hot dripping, with a large iron spoon kept in the dripping pan for the purpose. Allow a quarter of an hour for each pound of the joint if thin; if it is thick, twenty minutes will be required. When a dark brown gravy begins to drip from the meat, pour the dripping into a basin containing a little boiling water; this will clarify it.

When the joint is sufficiently cooked, sprinkle it with a little salt, and remove it to a hot dish. For the gravy, sprinkle a little salt into the dripping pan, pour into it half a tea cupful of boiling water, stir the gravy from the dripping pan well into this; pour it into the dish, but not over the meat, and serve.

Roast beef is often served with finely scraped horse radish scattered over it.

Pork.—To be roasted, requires to have its thick skin scored into stripes of half-an-inch wide; this is best done with the point of a sharp pen knife.

It is served with a dressing made of sage, onions, and bread-crumbs; also with apples stewed and slightly sweetened, the acidity of which takes from the richness of the meat. A little vinegar is sometimes used instead of apple sauce.

Stuffing for Pork.—Four or five good-sized onions; boil for ten minutes, then chop very fine. Rub down to powder sixteen or eighteen sage leaves, removing the stalks; mince with the onions; add stale bread-crumbs, sufficient to form the whole into a kind of paste, and either insert this dressing between the skin and the flesh, before putting the joint to the fire, or put it into the dripping-pan half-an-hour before the meat is taken from the fire, and immediately after the dripping has been taken way; in the latter case, serve it on the dish as gravy.

Roast Veal.—Should be served with the following dressing.

Four ounces of suet chopped very fine, six ounces of bread crumbs, a table-spoonful of parsley chopped fine, and one egg. Mix these ingredients, and bind them by means of the egg into a paste; season with pepper and salt, and insert the dressing between the skin and the flesh, in one place.

The flavour is improved by the addition of the fourth of the end of a lemon, or a tea spoonfnl of mixed savoury herbs chopped fine. The same dressing is used for turkey or fowl.

Veal should be dusted over with flour before being put to the fire, and a piece of the loose skin, sold with it, should be fastened over it while roasting. Being almost destitute of fat, it should be eaten with boiled bacon or pork.

A Joint of Lamb.—Should be dusted with flour before being put down to the fire, and requires to be served with mint sauce.

To make Mint Sauce.—Take two table spoonfuls of chopped mint, one large table spoonful of pounded sugar, and a tea cupful of vinegar. Mix well together, and serve in a sauce tureen separately.

To Boil a Joint of Meat.—Plunge the joint into boiling water, sufficient to cover it; let it boil, then immediately remove it to the side of the fire, and let it remain there until the hand can be borne in the water. By the first process, the albumen on the outside will be at once hardened sufficiently to prevent the escape of the juices, and the meat will be rendered tender by the gradual heat of the second process. Throw on a dessert spoonful of salt, and place the meat sufficiently near the fire to simmer very gently for the remainder of the time of cooking, fifteen minutes being allowed to each pound from the time it commenced to simmer. Skim occasionally

When sufficiently cooked, serve with it a little of the liquor in which it has been boiled.

Stewed Beef.—The tougher joints of beef or lean cuttings serve equally well for this purpose. Rub the meat over with vinegar; this will make it tender; place it in a deep jar which can be covered with a lid or a stewpan. Add barely sufficient water to cover it, a minced onion, a blade of mace, six or seven cloves, pepper and salt. Let it stew in the oven or by the side of the fire for six hours, remove the meat, thicken the gravy with flour mixed smooth in water. The flavour of the gravy will be further improved by the addition of a table spoonful of ketchup. Let it boil up after adding the flour, and pour on the dish with the meat.

Use a dessert spoonful of flour to a pint of gravy for thickening.

Brisket and rump steak and skirt of beef, veal, and cutlets of mutton may be cooked in this manner.

Broiled Steak or Chop.—Place a perfectly clean gridiron on a smokeless fire. (A handful of salt thrown on the fire will clear it of smoke.) When the girdiron is hot, rub its bars with a piece of fat, and place on it the steak or chop, which must be turned every few seconds with a fork inserted in the fat only. Ten minutes will be sufficient for a chop or steak of ordinary thickness. When done, remove to a hot dish, sprinkle with pepper and salt, and spread over it a little butter.

Fried Cutlets.—Veal cutlets and lamb chops should be fried. Broiling is the best method of cooking steaks and chops.

In frying, always use sufficient fat to cover the meat, which should be cooked by means of the boiling fat, not by contact with the heated frying pan.

To Cook Veal Cutlets.—Mix with a tea cupful of bread crumbs a tea spoonful of dried savoury herbs finely powdered, with pepper and salt to taste.

Dip the cutlets into the white of egg, sprinkle the bread-crumbs thickly over them, and lay them into boiling lard or dripping in a clean frying pan, fry till of a light brown, taking care not to let them burn; remove with perforated drainer to a hot dish.

For Lamb Chops.—Omit the sweet herbs.

To Make Gravy for Cutlets.—Pour away the fat from the frying pan, dredge into the pan a small table spoonful of flour, add a piece of butter (about half-an-ounce), let the flour brown, then pour over all a cup of boiling water, stir well from the bottom, let it boil up, and pour it on the dish containing the cutlets.

Hotch Potch.—One pound of neck of mutton, lamb, or veal; two young turnips of about the size of the closed fist; two good sized carrots; a pint of green peas, and an onion. Cut the carrots, turnips, and onion very small; put them with the meat (which should be cut up) into a quart of water; simmer for two hours in a closed saucepan. Just before serving, add a table spoonful of flour mixed smooth in half a tea cupful of water. Stir this well into the stew, and season with pepper and salt.

The remains of cold mutton, lamb, or veal make excellent hotchpotch, but should be added after the vegetables have stewed for an hour. Meat cuttings also serve the purpose well.

Irish Stew.—One pound of the trimmings of joints of mutton, or of the breast, three pounds of potatoes, and three large onions. Stew the mutton slowly for an hour in a pint and a-half of water. Add the potatoes and onions, sliced, season with pepper and salt, and stew for another hour. The stew-pan must be kept covered during the operation.

Beef Sausage-Meat.—One pound of coarse beef, or of the lean trimmings of joints of beef, and half-a-pound of suet. Chop very small, or put it through the sausage machine. Season with salt, pepper, or mixed spices. Make it up into flat cakes about an inch and a-half thick, and fry till brown.

Stewed Shin of Beef.—This, the coarsest joint of beef, contains much bone and gristle, but is sold at a cheap rate, and by slow stewing can be made tender and nutritious. Take out the marrow from the bones, as this makes a delicious pudding or pie crust. Cut the joint up, put the whole into a large earthenware jar, and cover with cold water, adding a dessert spoonful of pepper corns. Cover the top of the jar closely with a sheet of paper closely tied down. Put it into the oven, and let it stew slowly for twelve hours. It is best put in the oven over night, as the fire gradually gets lower and cooks it slowly. When the meat and gristle have left the bones, and are quite soft and tender, take out the bones and pour off the liquid. This will be very strong stock, and when cold will form a firm jelly, from which the fat should be taken. This fat is very sweet and good. The stock, diluted with an equal quantity of water, and boiled with vegetables and barley or rice, will make excellent soup.

The meat left is a rich and excellent warm stew. It should be eaten with plenty of vegetables, and part of the stock thickened as gravy. Small plain dumplings make an excellent addition to it. These may be made with a little of the marrow from the bones, instead of suet or dripping.

The remainder of the meat may be seasoned well, turned into a basin, and allowed to stand till cold, when it becomes quite firm, and may be cut in slices (being turned out in a shape), and eaten as beef brawn. It will also make a good meat pie or pudding for another dinner, the crust being made with the marrow or some of the fat taken from the top of the soup. Heated again, with the addition of turnips and carrots previously cooked, and thickened and flavoured afresh, it makes a good haricot. A shin of beef, with good management, should provide two good dinners for a family of six children. Very little additional fuel is needed for the stewing, if it is done over night; and every part of that which comes from the bone is good and nourishing food.

A Meat Pudding.—Buy beef-skirt for this purpose. It is very tender, full of gravy, and costs less than steak. A sheep's kidney, cut in pieces, is an improvement. Put the meat in a covered jar, and stew in a slow oven or saucepan of boiling water for four or five hours; or it may be left in the oven or saucepan all night. Line a buttered basin with crust made with flour and suet or dripping. Put in the meat with some of the gravy, season with pepper and salt, add a small piece of butter into which has been kneaded a spoonful of flour. Cover with crust, taking care to close the paste well in, to prevent the escape of the gravy. Dip a pudding-cloth in boiling water, flour it, and place it over the top of a basin, tying it down tightly round the rim at the bottom. Plunge into boiling water, and keep boiling for two hours. Turn out, without breaking, on a hot dish. These ingredients will make a meat pie equally well. Lean cuttings of beef or mutton are quite as good for this purpose as the meat from the most expensive joint.

Tripe.—One pound of tripe cut into pieces of the size of half the palm of the hand. Put it into the stew-pan with a pint of milk, two or three large onions sliced, pepper and salt. Let the whole stew slowly for an hour; add a dessert spoonful of flour rubbed into a smooth batter with a little cold milk, and let this simmer until it thickens. This dish is very delicate and easily digested.

Rabbit may be stewed in exactly the same way, being previously cut up.

Liver and Bacon.—One pound of sheep's liver cut through into finger lengths, half-a-pound of bacon, rather fat, a little pepper and salt, and two good onions sliced. Fry together on a moderate fire for twenty minutes, turning frequently to prevent burning. The liver should be of a rich brown colour when cooked. Turn it into a hot dish, dredge a table spoonful of flour on the bottom of the frying-pan. Let it brown a minute, then pour on it a tea-cupful of boiling gravy or water, and pepper and salt to taste. Stir it well from the bottom. When it thickens, and is dark brown, pour it over the liver and bacon in the dish.

Cold-Meat Cookery.—Cold meat should not be plunged into cold gravy, nor have cold water poured over it, as this makes it pale and tasteless. On the other hand, if plunged into boiling gravy, it is rendered hard and tough. In all cases the gravy should be very carefully seasoned, as recooked meat is insipid.

Mutton Haricot.—For gravy, stew the bones of the joint with a turnip, a good sized carrot, and a pint of water for two hours. Cut the meat into moderate-sized pieces, and fry them with an ounce of butter or dripping, and a large onion sliced. Dredge over this, while frying, a a table spoonful of flour. When both sides of the meat are browned, turn the contents of the frying-pan into a shallow stew-span. Pour on the gravy, and let the whole stew gently for an hour and a-half, with the lid closed. Season with pepper and salt and a table spoonful of Worcester Sauce or Mushroom Ketchup.

Hashed Mutton.—Prepare the gravy according to the directions for gravy for mutton haricot; but instead of turnips and carrots, stew with the bones twelve crushed pepper-corns, three crushed long peppers, and three stalks of lemon thyme and of sweet marjoram. Fry a large onion in dripping or butter, dredge flour over it, and when this is brown, add it to the gravy, which should have been stewed for two hours. Let this partially cool ; put the meat into it twenty minutes before it is required, and let it come up gently to the boiling point. Season with Worcester Sauce, and salt and pepper to taste, and serve on a hot dish garnished with strips of toast.

Rissoles.—Cut the remains of cold roast beef from the bones ; break the bones up, and stew them for several hours, for gravy. Mince the meat very fine, or put it through a sausage machine. To a pound of meat add half-a-pound of grated bread-crumbs, six or eight leaves of parsley chopped very fine, two eggs, pepper and salt. Knead the whole together into a paste. Make it up into balls, each of the size of an egg. Put them carefully into a frying-pan half-full of boiling lard or dripping, and let them fry till of a rich brown colour. Turn carefully with a tin slice without breaking. When browned on both sides, lift each out carefully, and place them on a hot dish, without any of the fat in which they have been fried. Serve with brown gravy.

Lobscous.—Cut off and mince the meat from the bones of a joint of cold roast mutton or beef. Break up the bones, and stew them in a quart of water, with six potatoes sliced very thin, one large onion, pepper and salt. When the potatoes have completely gone to a pulp, take out the bones and add the meat. Season with salt and pepper, and stew for an hour. A pound of meat will be required for this quantity of gravy.

Bubble and Squeak.—Half-a-pound of cold boiled beef cut in thin slices. A vegetable dish full of boiled greens well drained and mashed.

Fry the beef lightly in an ounce of butter or good beef dripping, lay it on a hot dish. Fry the greens in another ounce of dripping with a good sized onion sliced. When the onion is cooked, season with pepper and salt and cover the beef with the greens. Serve very hot.

Cottage Pie.—Mince fine the remains of any cold meat, or one and a half pounds of meat cuttings. Stew the bones for two or three hours, with an onion chopped fine, in as much water as will cover them ; season this gravy with pepper, salt, and two table spoonfuls of mushroom ketchup, or one of Worcester Sauce ; pour it over the meat, which should be placed in a pie dish ; fill up the dish with a thick crust of mashed potatoes ; any left from the previous day's dinner may be used for the purpose. Make the top smooth with a wooden spoon, and bake in a moderate oven till the top is slightly browned.

Fish may be substituted for the meat, a little chopped parsley being used instead of onion for flavouring. White fish, especially cod, haddock or ling, are best for the purpose.

Melted Butter forms the basis of most plain sauces. It is easily and very quickly made, but requires great attention during the making. Two good dessert spoonfuls of flour must be mixed with water to the consistence of cream, perfectly smooth ; to this add half-a-pint of cold water, a small pinch of salt, and a piece of butter the size of a small egg ; put the whole in a small saucepan, and stir it gently, always in one direction, until it begins to simmer at the edges. Keep stirring (but do not allow the mixture to boil) till it thickens, and all the butter is melted without rising to the top. About five minutes will be required to cook it, and it must be made only just before it is needed.

Sweet Sauce is melted butter, with the addition of sugar to taste, and is eaten with rice, batter, or plum-pudding. A glass of sherry or a table spoonful of brandy is sometimes added.

Caper Sauce, used for boiled mutton, is made by adding to the above quantity of melted butter a heaped table spoonful of chopped capers, and a little of the vinegar in which they are pickled. These should be allowed to simmer for two or three minutes in the sauce.

Parsley Sauce and *Fennel Sauce* are made in the same way as caper sauce, but only about half the quantity of the herb is required. The first is eaten with fish or boiled rabbit ; the second, only with mackerel.

Gravy.—Put into the frying-pan a piece of dripping of the size of an egg ; when this boils, dredge into it a table spoonful of flour, and let this fry till brown, stirring it occasionally to keep it from burning ; pour on this half-a-pint of stock or gravy made by stewing bones of joints ; let it simmer, and when it becomes thick add pepper and salt to taste ; if not sufficiently brown, take a tea spoonful of brown sugar, put it into an old iron table spoon, and place it in between the bars till it is all in a blaze : plunge it while blazing into the gravy and stir it well round. This gravy should be of the consistency of thick cream, and of a rich brown colour. It may be poured over rissoles, or served with them, with the addition of a dessert spoonful of Worcester Sauce. It makes excellent gravy for hashed mutton. For the latter purpose, an onion cut in thin slices should be fried in the dripping before the flour is added.

To Boil Potatoes, wash or peel them, and put them into a saucepan with sufficient cold water to cover them. Salt should be dissolved in the water in the proportion of a dessert spoonful to a quart. Let them boil up quickly, and then simmer gently at the side of the fire ; if allowed to boil quickly they break—if not kept at boiling point they become heavy and watery. When soft (which may be found by trying with a fork) drain off the water, and let them stand five minutes beside the fire to dry, with the lid of the saucepan slightly tilted to allow the steam to escape ; then turn them into a hot vegetable dish, and put on the lid so as to leave an outlet for the steam. If well cooked they will look like balls of flour, and the starch granules will be distinctly seen.

New potatoes must be scraped and put into boiling water with salt and a leaf of mint. Boiling is the only practicable method of cooking them.

In Steaming Potatoes be specially careful that the water is boiling when the potatoes are put into the steamer, and that it is kept boiling quickly ; otherwise they will be watery or "soapy."

Mashing Potatoes is performed after they have been boiled or steamed without the skin. To a common vegetable dishful add a piece of butter as large as a walnut, and a little salt; beat them quite smooth with a wooden spoon or mortar, put them in a hot dish, and serve. Three or four table spoonfuls of milk may be used instead of the butter, or in addition to it. Very old potatoes are best when mashed.

To Fry Potatoes, pare them and cut them in thin slices. Throw these into a frying-pan half-full of hot dripping, over a slow clear fire; let them boil in the dripping for fifteen minutes, then remove them with a wire strainer or slice, to free them from fat; sprinkle a little salt over them, and serve. Cold potatoes may be re-cooked by frying with a minced onion and a little pepper and salt; but for this only a small quantity of dripping is required: a piece of the size of a small egg is sufficient for a frying-pan full of potatoes.

Potato-Pie.—Pare four or five pounds of potatoes, cut them in halves; put them in a large pie-dish or baking-dish, with a pound of fat mutton cuttings and a large onion in slices. Mix these together, sprinkle with a little salt and pepper, fill the dish with cold water, and bake in a quick oven for an hour and a half or two hours.

To Cook Greens, of all kinds except spinach, take off all faded leaves and as much of the stalk as possible; if the stem is thick, cut the remaining part of it across and across. Let them lie in strong salt and water for ten minutes to free them from insects; then wash them in plenty of water, and place them to drain in a colander. Throw them into a saucepan of boiling water in which have been dissolved a piece of soda the size of a hazel nut, and salt in the proportion of a dessert spoonful to a quart. Keep the saucepan uncovered and boiling fast. When the greens are tender, drain them in a colander, and press out as much water as possible.

Cauliflowers and Brocoli are treated in much the same way as greens; but they should be kept in cold salt water for an hour, with the flower downwards; and as they require to be kept whole, should not be pressed in the colander. To preserve the whiteness of the flower, the water should be skimmed during the boiling. Melted butter is served with them.

Spinach is much more watery than greens of the cabbage kind, and free from the peculiar principle which gives "green-water" its disagreeable smell and taste. Hence but little water is used in boiling it; half-a-pint is sufficient for a large saucepanful. As the water is drawn from the spinach by the heat, the vegetable shrinks greatly in cooking. Two table spoonfuls of salt should be added to the half-pint of water for cooking, and after fifteen minutes' boiling, the spinach should be squeezed tightly in a colander, chopped fine, stirred in a small saucepan with pepper, salt, and a piece of butter, and served in a vegetable dish with strips of toast laid round it. If desired, slices of egg, very hard-boiled, may be laid on the top. Spinach is particularly suitable for eating with roast mutton or beef.

Green Peas should be shelled, washed, drained, and thrown into boiling water, to which have been added a few leaves of mint, salt in the same proportion as for greens, and a salt spoonful of moist sugar to each quart; soda must not be used unless the peas are very old. They must boil quickly, with the saucepan-lid tilted, and when soft be drained, and served in a hot dish, with a piece of butter in the centre.

French and Scarlet Beans.—Cut off the stalk and strip off the stringy portion that lies between the divisions of the pod; cut the whole pod into five or six strips in a slanting direction, and wash them in cold water. After this they are boiled in the same way as green peas, and served with a small tureen of melted butter. *Broad beans* are cooked in the same way as peas. They are best eaten with bacon or pork.

Dried Haricot Beans should be soaked in water all night. Put them into cold water with salt, and bring them slowly to the boiling-point. Let them simmer gently till soft; drain away the water and stand them to dry beside the fire with the saucepan lid partly off. Shake them about with pepper, salt, and a little butter, and serve—or serve with a small tureen of melted butter.

Split Peas are eaten with boiled beef or pork. A pint should be washed and put to soak overnight; they must be tied loosely in a cloth and put into the water (the same in which the meat is to be boiled) while it is cold. Bring the water to the boiling point before putting in the meat. When the peas have boiled for three hours, put them into a large hot basin, add salt and pepper, and beat them with the potato-masher until they form a smooth mass. Serve in a very hot vegetable dish.

For those who have to do very laborious work, a savoury and exceedingly nourishing dish is produced by cooking a pint of peas, soaked over night, in an earthenware jar with half-a-pint of water and a pound of bacon or fat pork cut in thin slices. The jar must be closely covered, and placed in a moderate oven for three hours.

Turnips are excellent with roast or boiled mutton. They may be boiled with the meat; their flavour improves it, and the liquor will make good soup next day. After paring, the large white turnips should be cut in quarters; the small yellow variety may be cooked whole. Throw them into boiling water, cook till soft, and drain them by squeezing in a colander; put them in a small saucepan and beat them quite smooth; add salt, pepper, and a piece of butter of the size of a small egg, or a table spoonful of cream. Stir them over the fire till thoroughly hot, and serve them in a very hot dish.

Carrots are generally eaten with boiled beef. They are washed, scraped, and if large cut lengthwise into two or four pieces; then put into the water wherein the meat is already boiling, cooked till tender, drained, and placed as a garnishing round the meat.

Parsnips are usually eaten with salt fish, or with boiled beef or pork. They are cooked in the same way as carrots; but if boiled with the meat, plenty of water must be used, or the joint must be boiled in a cloth; otherwise it will be too strongly flavoured by them.

Onions are baked or boiled. If they are to be baked, put them unpeeled into boiling-water with a dessert spoonful of salt to each quart, and let them boil for an hour with the saucepan-lid slightly tilted; take them out, dry them, and bake for two hours. A piece of thin white paper laid on the top prevents the outside becoming scorched. They should be served in their skins, and eaten with butter, pepper, and salt.

To stew them, they must be put into a stewpan, with two ounces of butter or dripping and a tea spoonful of salt, stewed slowly till tender, and served with the gravy made in the cooking.

Colcannon.—Take equal quantities in bulk of boiled potatoes and boiled greens. Mash them smooth, separately, then mix them well together with a wooden spoon. To a vegetable dish of the mixture, add an ounce of butter, with pepper and salt to taste ; place in a hot oven for ten minutes, and serve.

Vegetable Marrow.—Pare the vegetable marrow, split it open lengthways, and take out the seeds. Place it in boiling water, with a small handful of salt. Boil till soft. Lay the pieces neatly on a vegetable dish ; pour over them melted butter sauce.

Salad.—One large or two small lettuces, a handful each of mustard and cress, watercress, and young radishes, three or four very young spring onions, if the flavour is desired ; the vegetables should be as fresh as possible. Let the whole lie in salt and water for an hour, then take each leaf separately, wash well, throw aside those that are not quite green and fresh. When washed, put on a sieve to drain, cut the lettuce, watercress, and mustard and cress small. Slice the radishes very thin (cucumber may be substituted for radishes if in season). Mix the whole up together lightly in a salad bowl or a vegetable dish, place here and there slices of a hard-boiled egg. Serve with plain vinegar or with salad dressing.

Salad Dressing.—A table spoonful of salad oil, two of milk, two of vinegar, a small tea spoonful of mixed mustard and one of sugar ; mix the mustard and the sugar well with the oil, then gradually add the milk, and lastly, the vinegar, stirring all the time. The dressing should be of the consistency of cream. Add salt to taste, and serve in a sauce boat separately.

Remains of chicken, game, crab, or lobster, or any fish, may be cut in slices and placed round or mixed with the vegetables. When this is done, the dressing should be previously poured over the vegetables.

A Cheap Rice Pudding.—Half-a-pound of rice ; wash it well, put it into a greased pie dish, with a pint and a-half of water. Bake in a moderate oven till the water is quite absorbed. Beat up one egg with half-a-pint of milk, add to this two table spoonfuls of brown sugar, the rind of a quarter of an orange, cut up into three or four pieces, and three or four pieces of butter of the size of a small nut. Mix this well with the rice, bake for another hour, and serve with sweet melted butter.

A Cheaper Method.—Half-a-pound of rice, washed well, put into a greased pie dish with one and a half pint of water ; bake two hours. At the end of this time, and while the rice is rather dry, through having absorbed the water, stir in a good table spoonful of scraped suet, two table spoonfuls of brown sugar, about a quarter of the rind of an orange or lemon cut in pieces, or half a tea spoonful of allspice or ground cinnamon. Add another pint of water; bake till the water is quite absorbed, and serve with melted butter.

The suet and melted butter will give richness to the rice which, without something of this kind, would, when baked in water, be very insipid.

Pie Crust is best made by the use of a mixture of butter and lard, or lard and dripping; butter makes the best crusts, but it is too expensive for family use. Lard and butter should be used for fruit tarts; dripping is suitable for meat pies. Mutton dripping is likely to have a strong taste, and is on that account less useful for pastry than that obtained from beef: it should be used up for other purposes; or, to take away its unpleasantness in some degree, a pinch of baking-powder should be put in the dough.

Paste for pie-crust is of two kinds—short, and flaked or puff.

Short Crust.—Rub the lard, butter, or dripping into the flour before kneading with the water; or melt the fat, adding very little water, and mix it with the flour.

Puff Paste.—Rub only a small portion of the fat in with the flour, mix it into a mass with water, roll it out thin, spread the fat on it as butter is laid on bread, roll it up so that the fat is between layers of dough; and lastly, roll it out again to the required thickness. This spreading and rolling may be repeated, according to the degree of richness required, but more fat must be spread each time. This kind of dough is best when made a day before it is baked.

Boiled Flour Puddings are made by mixing dry flour with suet, in the proportion of about a quarter of a pound of the latter to a pound of the former, then kneading it with a spoon very lightly, with just enough water to form a mass. Suet is the only fat suitable for a boiled pudding-crust, and it should be very finely shredded or chopped.

Dough for puddings must be mixed with the least possible amount of handling, or it will be heavy and tough; and where it is necessary to roll it out, as for a jam or apple pudding, it should be rolled only once. The ingredients of a plum or suet pudding should be lightly drawn together with a spoon, and lifted into the pudding cloth without being touched at all by the fingers.

To prevent puddings from sticking to the cloth, dip the latter in boiling water, let it drain a few minutes, and then flour it thoroughly. Tie the pudding up closely, and be sure that the water is boiling rapidly before putting it in; and when cooked, plunge it for a few seconds into cold water before untying.

Plum and meat puddings should be boiled in a well-greased basin to preserve the flavours and juices. Suet and plain raisin puddings are lighter when boiled in the cloth only, and their lightness may be increased by adding a cupful of finely-crumbled bread to the flour.

Plain Suet Pudding.—A pound of flour, a small tea spoonful of salt, and four ounces of suet (beef suet is the best). Chop the suet very fine, add it to the dry flour. Mix by means of a wooden spoon with cold water, till the paste is thick enough to form a mass that will drop readily apart when lifted with a spoon. Dip a pudding cloth into boiling water, flour it ; lift the dough into this without touching it with the fingers, tie up tightly and boil for two hours. It may be eaten with meat gravy, jam, or treacle.

Six-Cup Pudding.—A tea cupful each of flour, currants, suet (chopped fine), coarse sugar, bread-crumbs, and water or milk ; one good tea spoonful of mixed spice or ground cinnamon, or an ounce of candied peel cut small. Mix the whole well together with a wooden spoon, lift it into a buttered basin, which must be filled ; tie tightly in a cloth, boil four hours, and serve with sweet sauce.

Cheap Lemon Pudding.—A tea cupful each of flour and coarse sugar, a pint of bread-crumbs, a quarter of a pound of suet chopped fine, and the grated rind of a lemon ; squeeze over these ingredients the juice of the lemon. Mix with water till a thin dough is formed, using a wooden spoon for the purpose ; the dough must not be kneaded or even touched with the hand. Fill a buttered basin, plunge into boiling water, and boil for two hours. Serve with sweet sauce. An additional lemon is an improvement.

Bread and Butter Pudding.—Cut slices of bread about half-an-inch thick, spread them with butter, and pack in layers in a greased pie dish, sprinkle between each layer a few currants, a good tea spoonful of coarse sugar, and a tea spoonful of candid peel cut small, or a pinch of ground cinnamon. When all the slices are packed, pour on sufficient milk, into which an egg has been beaten, to cover them. Bake for an hour and a-half ; two eggs may be used if desired.

Yorkshire Pudding.—1 lb. of flour, 2 eggs, a small tea spoonful of salt, and one of baking powder, with sufficient skim milk to form the whole into a batter of the consistence of thick cream. Add the baking powder while the flour is dry, then the eggs well beaten, and lastly the milk. Mix until the batter is quite smooth, pour it into a dripping pan, under a joint of meat that is roasting, about an hour before the latter is ready to serve ; the dripping in the pan should previously be poured away. When the side of the pudding nearest the fire begins to rise turn the dripping pan. Cut in squares and serve with the meat.

Baked Yorkshire Pudding.—Pour the batter made as above into a well-greased dripping pan or pie dish, and bake for forty minutes in a brisk oven ; this may be eaten with jam or treacle, or served with meat. Time forty-five minutes.

Batter Pudding with Sausages.—Make the batter as for a Yorkshire pudding, pour it into a well-greased pie dish, place a pound of pork sausages in the batter, and bake.

Cost—butter 6¾d., sausages 1s. Time fifty minutes. Sufficient for a dinner for four.

Baked Batter Pudding with Meat.—Make the batter as before, and place above it on a small wire stand one and a-half pounds of scrag or breast of mutton ; the latter should not touch the batter ; bake one hour.

Yeast Dumplings.—Take pieces of the dough that is in preparation for bread making ; it should be well risen. Knead them quickly into balls of the size of a large walnut, and throw them into plenty of boiling water. Boil for four minutes ; serve on a hot dish, with meat, gravy, treacle, jam, or butter and sugar. As they swell in boiling, it is best not to have more than ten or twelve in the saucepan at once.

Yeast dumplings are heavy unless eaten directly after being served.

Norfolk Dumplings.—One pound of flour, a dessert spoonful of baking powder, and a tea spoonful of salt.

Mix the baking powder with the flour while dry ; add cold water and knead quickly into a paste ; divide into pieces of the size of a small orange, throw into boiling water, and boil for ten minutes ; serve very hot. Unless eaten at once they are heavy. They are excellent with meat, gravy, jam, or treacle.

A Currant Dumpling.—Six ounces of suet, four ounces of currants, one ounce of candied peel cut small, half-a-pound of flour, half-a-pound of bread-crumbs, and two ounce of brown sugar. Chop the suet very fine, mix the whole of the ingredients together with water. The paste must not be stiff. It should be so much thicker than batter that it will fall into separate masses as it is stirred. Lift with a wooden spoon on to a well-floured cloth that has been dipped in boiling water, tie up tightly, boil for two hours, and serve with sweet sauce.

A Plum Pudding.—A breakfast cupful each of flour, grated bread-crumbs, finely chopped suet, brown sugar, currants, and raisins. Two ounces of candied peel cut small, one ounce of sweet and half-an-ounce of bitter almonds, and a dessert spoonful of mixed spice. A grated carrot is an improvement. Mix with a breakfast-cupful of water, place in a buttered basin or mould, tie up in a cloth, boil four hours.

Mince Pies.—Equal quantities of raisins, currants, lean beef, moist sugar, apples, and beef suet. If one pound of each be used, add one ounce each of citron, orange and lemon peel, the grated rind and the juice of a fresh lemon, half-an-ounce of bitter and one of sweet almonds. Stone the raisins, wash and drain the currants, pare and core the apples and blanch the almonds by putting them into hot water, and removing the skin. Chop all the ingredients very fine, mix well.

Line the small tins in which the pies are to be baked with a light paste, fill with mince meat, cover with crust, trim the edges neatly, make a little hole in the top of each for the escape of the steam, and bake in a brisk oven for half-an-hour. Should the mince meat require to be kept long, it must be put into a covered jar, and have poured over it half-a-pint of brandy. This is not necessary when it is used at once. Mince pies should always be warmed if kept in store.

Cheese Puffs.—Make a light paste of half-a-pound of flour, and three ounces of butter or dripping ; roll it out very thin, and cut it out in round pieces about six inches in diameter ; place on each of these a slice of cheese about one-third of an inch thick ; double one side over the cheese, and fasten it down to the under side at the edges. Bake in a brisk oven till of a light brown ; serve hot.

Custard Pie.—Make a light paste as above, roll it out thin, and cover a large well-greased dinner plate or open dish; cut the edges smooth; make a custard by beating one egg in a tea cupful of milk, adding a dessert-spoonful of sugar and a little grated nutmeg; pour this into the plate, and bake in a brisk oven.

Yorkshire Cheesecake.—One quart of skim milk; put it on the fire with half-a-pint of sour butter milk, or of the water in which rennet has been steeped. (Rennet may be obtained from the butcher.) Let the milk boil; in a short time it will be seen to separate into curds and whey; pour it gently through a hair sieve, which will retain the curd; let this drain, gather it into a basin, add to it two eggs, two table spoonfuls of white sugar, one ounce of butter, and a few drops of lemon flavouring; beat the whole well together; place it on a light crust, thinly spread over a plate or flat dish, in the same manner as jam is spread in an open tartlet, and bake.

A Plain Omelet.—Three eggs, a salt spoonful of salt, half a much pepper, and an ounce of butter. Beat the eggs for four minutes, add the seasoning and a fourth of the butter, broken up into very small pieces; mix well.

Put the rest of the butter into a clean frying-pan; place this over a slow fire; when the butter is melted, pour in the mixture and let it set, taking care that it does not burn, which may be prevented by shaking it a little. Carefully turn over the sides so that they meet in the middle, and remove with a tin slice to a hot dish, without breaking. Time to prepare, five minutes; to cook, four minutes.

A small frying pan should be used for an omelet of this size in order that it may be of the requisite thickness (about half-an-inch). Omelets should be of a golden yellow colour when cooked. If allowed to get quite brown they are dry and overdone.

A Savoury Omelet.—To the above ingredients add a tea spoonful of finely shred onion, and the same quantity of chopped parsley.

A Cheese Omelet.—Mix the ingredients as for a plain omelet, and add a table spoonful of grated cheese. Cheese that is quite dry and hard will answer the purpose best.

A Ham Omelet.—The ingredients as for a plain omelet, to which add a table spoonful of lean ham finely minced.

A Plain Sweet Omelet.—Three eggs, one and a-half ounces of butter, one table spoonful of white sugar. Beat the eggs for half-a-minute; add a fourth of the butter, broken into very small pieces, stir in the sugar. Heat the remainder of the butter in the frying-pan; when it boils, pour in the mixture and let it set, taking care that it does not stick to the pan; fold in the two sides, lift carefully into a hot dish, and sprinkle with sifted sugar.

Jam Omelet.—Prepare the ingredients as for a plain sweet omelet. When cooked, slip it from the frying-pan without turning or doubling over the sides; place in the middle two table spoonfuls of jam, turn the two sides over this, and serve.

Omelets though very delicate are inexpensive. They may be flavoured with the remains of ham, tongue, or cheese, which can no longer be sent to table; they are, moreover, very nutritious, easily digested, and quickly prepared. The frying-pan in which they are cooked should be well rubbed after being used, but not washed, as this causes the omelet to stick while cooking.

Corn Flour.—Two heaped table spoonfuls of corn flour, mixed smooth in four table spoonfuls of cold milk; add a pint and a-half of milk, a table spoonful of white sugar, and six drops of almond, lemon, or vanilla flavouring. Pour the whole into a clean saucepan, put it over a clear fire, and stir constantly till it boils. Have ready a basin or mould that has been dropped in cold watter; pour in the corn flour, put it in a cool place, and in two hours it may be turned out a firm jelly. This may be eaten with stewed fruit or jam.

Pancakes.—Two eggs, four table spoonfuls of flour, and a pinch of salt. Beat up the eggs; add the flour and enough milk to mix it to a smooth paste; then add sufficient milk to make the mixture into a batter of the consistence of thick cream. Have ready a small clean frying-pan like that used for omelets; melt in this half-an-ounce of butter, beef dripping, or lard; pour into the heated pan just sufficient of the batter to cover the bottom; when slightly browned, turn without breaking, by means of a tin slice; when the other side is very slightly browned, strew over it a little sugar, roll it up and place it on a hot dish, and proceed in the same way until the batter is all used. A lemon and sifted sugar should be served with pancake.

A More Substantial Pancake.—Two eggs, one pound of flour, a salt spoonful of salt, and a small tea spoonful of baking powder; mix the latter in the flour while dry. Add the eggs and a pint of milk to the flour; beat up the whole quite smooth; add water till the batter is of the requisite consistence; fry in beef dripping or lard; pile the pancakes one above another, strewing sugar between, and cut the pile in four.

Apple Fritters.—Make a batter as for either of the above kinds of pancakes; pare and core three large apples, cut them in thick slices, put them into the batter. Have ready a frying-pan containing four ounces of lard or beef dripping, quite boiling; take up each slice of apple separately in about a table spoonful of batter, drop quickly into the boiling fat. Fry as many at once as the frying-pan will contain without allowing them to touch each other; when of a very pale brown colour, turn; remove from the pan with a perforated slice, and place them to drain from the fat on a sheet of clean paper. Pile on a hot dish, strew over them sifted sugar, and serve.

Rice with Fruit.—Six ounces of rice; wash it well, stew it in the oven or a clean saucepan with a pint of water till the latter is quite absorbed; add a pint of milk, a piece of orange or lemon rind, a little nutmeg, or any other flavouring, and a table spoonful of sugar. Let this stew till the milk is quite absorbed and the rice soft.

To a quart of gooseberries, apples, or rhubarb cut in pieces, add a tea cupful of brown sugar and half a tea cupful of water; stew in an earthenware dish in a moderate oven. When cooked, pile the rice on a dish, and place the fruit around, or place the rice all round the fruit.

Tea.—The water must be soft and boiling, the tea-pot hot, the tea of good quality and sufficient quantity, and time enough must be given it to infuse or mash.

The water, if hard, may be softened by boiling, or by putting into the kettle a little carbonate of soda; a gallon of water will require about as much soda as will lie on a sixpence. The tea-pot should be heated by a little boiling water; this must be poured away before the tea is put in. The old rule, "A teaspoonful for each person and one for the tea-pot," is a sufficient guide as to the quantity; and ten minutes should be allowed for the tea to infuse.

Many people pour a cupful of water on the tea at first, and fill up the pot when about to serve the tea; others fill the tea-pot at once. The first plan is generally considered the better one.

Coffee.—Two spoonfuls of coffee are required for each person, and two "for the pot." Having poured the boiling water over it, place the pot on the fire and watch it, that it may be removed just before it reaches boiling point. It must on no account be allowed to boil. Lift the pot off the fire; pour a little of the coffee into a cup and return it to the pot, to prevent the spout becoming choked; let it stand ten minutes to settle, and pour it into the bright coffee-pot, previously heated, for table.

Boiling milk should always be served with coffee.

Dry Toast should be thin and crisp. It should be made just before it is needed, and served in the toast-rack in half slices, the crust being removed. The use of the rack is to keep the slices separate; if allowed to lie near each other when warm they become tough.

Buttered Toast is thicker than dry. It should be made before a quick fire, and buttered at once with a light hand. The slices may be piled up and cut into two or four pieces according to their size; the crust may be removed or allowed to remain, as desired. It should be prepared just before it is needed, and kept hot till eaten.

Delicacies for the Sick.—*Beef Tea.*—One pound of lean beef, a pint and a-half of water, and a salt spoonful of salt. Cut the beef into small pieces, put it into an earthenware jar that has a close-fitting lid; pour the water over it, close it up and put it in a moderately heated oven for five or six hours. Strain through a hair sieve, and let it stand till cold, then remove every particle of fat. Beef-tea can be well cooked if put in the oven over night and allowed to remain there till morning; it is by this means subjected to very gradual heat. Or the covered jar containing the meat and cold water may be placed in a saucepan of boiling water (which should be kept at boiling point), and allowed to remain their eight or ten hours. This is the most perfect method of stewing, and is on the same principle as the "Bain-Marie," so much used in French cookery. Beef-tea made in a saucepan at the side of the fire is likely to boil, and this hardens the meat so that all its juices cannot be drawn out, and hardens the juices also, when they may be seen in the form of particles of brown curd, which fall to the bottom. These particles are nearly as indigestible as hard-boiled eggs; they are of no use to an invalid unless quite dissolved by very slow stewing. Beef-tea should never boil.

Another Method.—When the beef-tea is required at very short notice, chop the beef fine, or cut it small by putting it through a sausage-machine; put it into an enamelled saucepan with luke-warm water and salt; set it at the side of the fire till it reaches the boiling point; stir it well, and strain. This may be made in ten minutes.

Mutton Broth.—For an invalid this should be made without vegetables or flavouring herbs. Take a pound of neck of mutton, a quart of water, a salt spoonful of salt, and a table spoonful of rice or pearl barley. Simmer gently at the side of the fire in an enamelled saucepan for three hours—skimming it carefully at intervals; let it stand till cold; remove the fat; heat as much as is required at once.

Veal Broth is made in the same way, but rice is preferable to barley. The knuckle of the leg or shoulder is the best veal for making broth.

A Quicker Method.—Cut or chop the meat into very small pieces, take away all fat, put into a saucepan with the bones a little salt, a dessert spoonful of tapioca, and a pint of cold water. Cover the saucepan closely till it boils; take off the lid and boil for half an hour longer. Remove any fat that may be on the top by laying on the surface of the broth a piece of thin white paper.

Chicken Broth.—Three or four chickens' necks, together with any of the tougher portions of a fowl that has been cooked. Put the whole into a saucepan with a quart of water, a dessert spoonful of rice, and a salt spoonful of salt; let it simmer very slowly with the lid down for three or four hours. Take out the meat and serve. An old fowl that would be too tough to roast or boil for table will make good nourishing broth.

Poached Eggs.—Break the egg into a cup without injuring the yolk; pour it very gently into a shallow saucepan containing boiling water; let it simmer until the white is set; lift the egg out carefully with an egg-slice, which should be dipped underneath it; trim off the jagged edges of the white, and place it on a slice of buttered toast. If more than two eggs are cooked at the same time, it is difficult to serve them without breaking.

Light Puddings.—*Baked Apple Pudding.*—Several rather thin slices of bread, without crust, and very lightly buttered, two or three apples pared and cut in slices. Butter a pie-dish, put a layer of bread and above it a layer of apple, with a sprinkling of sugar above each, until the dish is nearly full. Add two spoonfuls of water. Cover with an old dish or sheet of clean paper, and bake for an hour in a brisk oven. This may be flavoured with one or two cloves, a little mace, nutmeg, or grated lemon-rind, according to taste.

Fig Pudding is made in the same way, the figs being cut in slices instead of apples. Half a cup of milk may be used instead of water, and the flavouring should be omitted.

Either of these may be boiled in a closely covered basin instead of being baked.

Boiled Custard.—Two fresh eggs well beaten, one dessert spoonful of sugar, and rather more then a tea cupful of fresh milk. Stir well together, flavour with a very slight grating of nutmeg, if agreeable. Fill a buttered pudding-cup to the brim, tie closely over it a buttered cloth, plunge into boiling water, and let it boil ten minutes. Turn it carefully out, without breaking the shape. The same ingredients may be put into a small buttered pie-dish, and baked fifteen minutes in a brisk oven. Custards are the lightest of puddings—they are easily digested if not over-cooked, but are not suitable for invalids who are bilious.

Rice Pudding.—Two table spoonfuls of rice, one pint of sweet milk, a tea spoonful of finely scraped or minced suet,and a little grated nutmeg, lemon-rind, or almond flavouring. Put the whole into a buttered dish, and place it in a moderately heated oven for three hours. A piece of paper may be tied over the top of the dish, to prevent its getting too dry while cooking.

Rice is excellent for all invalids suffering from dysentery or diarrhœa. The addition of suet makes it still more valuable in this respect.

Tapioca Pudding.—Half a tea cupful of tapioca, a pint of milk, and a dessert spoonful of sugar. Simmer for ten minutes in an enamelled saucepan, stirring all the time. Then pour into a buttered pie-dish, add a little flavouring of mace, nutmeg, vanilla, or almond, if required, with two or three pieces of butter of the size of small nuts. Bake for an hour in a moderate oven.

Semolina Pudding.—Half a cupful of semolina, a pint of milk, a dessert spoonful of sugar, and a little almond or vanilla flavouring, if roquired. Simmer gently over the fire for ten minutes, stirring frequently. Pour into a buttered pie-dish, with one egg well beaten, and a piece of butter of the size of a walnut, broken up into small pieces. Bake in a moderate oven for an hour.

Beverages.—*Toast Water* is a cooling drink, especially adapted for fever patients. To make it, take a piece of bread an inch thick and three inches square ; toast it gradually till it is quite hard, dry, and of a dark brown colour, but not burnt. Plunge it into a jug containing a pint of fresh filtered water ; cover it closely ; let it stand till quite cold, and then strain it. It should be of the colour of brown sherry. Toast water must be made fresh every day.

Another plan is to plunge the toast into boiling water. This plan should be adopted only when the patient is suffering from disease of the digestive organs, causing sicknesss or diarrhœa ; in cases of this kind, unboiled water sometimes aggravates the disease. Water, in boiling, is deprived of its carbonic acid ; a portion of the mineral substance it contains is then thrown down to the bottom of the vessel, and the loss of this gives the beverage a flat insipid taste.

Lemonade is a refreshing summer beverage, and forms a cooling drink for the sick, to whom its acidity renders it very grateful.

Pare the rind from a large lemon, and cut the inside across in slices ; put both into a jug, and pour on a pint and a-half of boiling water ; add refined sugar to taste ; cover it, and let it stand to cool ; then strain it.

A piece of ice (which may be bought at the fishmonger's for a penny) washed and plunged into the lemonade will make it intensely cold in a few minutes. Lemonade will be made more quickly if the juice of the lemon is squeezed on to the rind with a pair of lemon-squeezers, instead of the fruit being cut into slices. The rind gives the drink a very pleasant flavour. An ounce of powdered gum-arabic, mixed with two table spoonfuls of honey and added with the boiling water, will make this beverage valuable in chest disease, consumption, etc.

Apple-Tea, being slightly acid, is refreshing to feverish patients. Pare and slice two large apples, put them into a jug, pour on them a pint of boiling water, and sweeten to taste. Cover the jug closely, and let it stand to cool, or cool it with a piece of ice; then strain it.

Barley-Water is both cooling and nutritious. Like other drinks for the sick, it should be made fresh every day.

Wash an ounce of pearl barley in cold water, till the fine flour on the outside is quite removed. Boil it for five minutes in a pint of cold water, which must be thrown away; then pour on a quart of water, and let it boil down to a pint. Strain it, and sweeten with honey or sugar; then flavour with a little lemon-juice, if it is required to be acid. To give a pleasant flavour, a piece of lemon-rind or cinnamon—to add to its nutritive properties, a handful of split raisins—may be boiled with it.

Bran-Tea is a highly nutritious beverage, since the inner side of the bran contains some of the most valuable portions of the wheat. It is good in diseases of the chest.

Boil two handfuls of bran in a quart of water till the latter is thick; strain and sweeten it, and let it cool. A piece of lemon-rind boiled with it will give it a pleasant flavour; gum-arabic and honey added as for barley-water will increase its healing and nourishing properties.

Gruel.—A heaped table spoonful of oat-meal and a salt spoonful of salt. Mix with a pint of cold water, boil for twenty-five minutes, strain through a hair sieve, sweeten with raw sugar, and flavour with grated nutmeg. A piece of butter, of the size of a small walnut, is a great improvement.

Gruel when served should be quite free from the solid portions of the meal.

Oatmeal-Tea.—Two heaped table spoonfuls of oat-meal and a salt spoonful of salt; put these into a jug and pour on a pint of boiling water; stir well, and then let the meal settle to the bottom. This is drunk quite hot as a remedy for a cold.

Baked Calves' Feet.—Take two calves' feet, wash them thoroughly, scald them and scrape off the hair, then pack them in an earthenware jar, with a stick of cinnamon or a fourth of the rind of a lemon; pour over all a quart of milk, cover the jar closely, and bake in a moderate oven for six hours. Strain off the liquor and let it stand till cold, when it will be a firm jelly, then remove the fat and the sediment from the bottom; place it in an enamelled saucepan till it melts; add white sugar to taste; let it boil up, stirring all the time; pour into a basin or mould previously wetted, stand it in a cool place to stiffen, then turn it out on a dish.

Calf's-Foot Jelly.—Two calves' feet—scald them, remove the hair and boil them gently in five pints of water till the five are reduced to four ; strain off the liquid and let it stand till firm ; then remove the fat and sediment and put the stock into a clean enamelled saucepan ; squeeze over it the juice of four lemons ; add the rind of two, and place over a clear but not very hot fire to boil. Beat up the whites of four eggs to a froth ; stir into this half a bottle of sherry or raisin wine, and a little of the boiling stock, stirring all the time ; pour this mixture into the saucepan, add loaf sugar to taste. Let it boil twenty minutes ; strain through a bag of double flannel into a basin ; pour into a wet mould and stand in a cool place to stiffen.

A Quicker Method.—Two ounces of prepared gelatine dissolved in a quart of cold water, and boiled, may be substituted for the calves' feet stock, or a pint and a-half of water, and a bottle of sherry or raisin wine instead of half a bottle. The eggs, lemons, and sugar may be added at once, and the mixture may be boiled, strained, and ready for use in a very short time.

Blanc Mange.—A pint and a half of good milk ; dissolve in it while cold an ounce of prepared gelatine, put it on the fire in a clean enamelled saucepan, sweeten with white sugar, add nine or ten drops of vanilla or almond flavouring. Boil for ten minutes, stirring frequently, pour into a wet mould, and let it stand in a cool place to stiffen.

Tapioca Jelly.—Four ounces of small tapioca ; wash it several times, and soak for twelve hours in a pint of cold water. Boil it, without adding more water, in a clean saucepan with the rind and juice of a lemon. When it looks clear, add two glasses of sherry, and white sugar to taste. Remove the rind, and pour into a wet mould to stiffen.

Claret Jelly.—Take a bottle of claret, put it into an enamelled saucepan with an ounce of prepared gelatine, the juice of two lemons, and half the rind of one. Place it on a slow fire and stir while it is heating, until the gelatine is dissolved. Add loaf sugar to taste, let it boil for ten minutes, strain through a bag of double flannel, pour into a basin or mould previously wetted, let it stand in a cool place to stiffen, then turn it out.

To Light a Fire.

Have ready some very dry wood and a few pieces of coal from a previous fire. Clear out the ashes and cinders, making as little dust as possible, put back a few pieces of cinders but do not cover the bottom of the grate, as this will exclude the air and prevent the fire burning. On the cinders place a few pieces of paper, crumpled, so that they cannot fall in flat sheets. Arrange the pieces of stick above the paper, laying them lightly across each other, place here and there pieces of halfburned coal, which will light more quickly than fresh. Throw some of the cinders at the back, and place pieces of coal of the size of the palm of the hand here and there on the top, and the grain of the coal perpendicular to the wood. Do not cover the wood entirely with coal or put pieces between the bars, both these practices exclude the air, and the latter makes the fire smokey, where it ought to be red and glossy. Apply a match to the paper, and the fire will blaze up brightly in two or three minutes.

DOMESTIC SURGERY.

A Cold.—If the skin be dry and feverish, take a hot bath ; if this cannot be procured, put the feet in hot mustard and water. Wrap up in a hot blanket, get into a warm bed, and take a hot drink of oatmeal gruel, or bran tea, or a pint of milk into which two table spoonfuls of treacle have been stirred, or a pint of wine whey. The object of this treatment is to produce perspiration.

A Sudden Chill is produced by wearing wet clothes, sitting in a damp room, or in a draught. The symptoms are alternate shivering and feverishness. The action of the skin must be at once restored by producing perspiration ; this is done by warm baths and hot drinks. A tea spoonful of spirit of nitre in water tends to promote perspiration.

Croup.—The symptoms are sudden hoarseness and feverishness, difficulty of breathing, and a peculiar harsh cough. Plunge the child up to the neck in a hot bath ; let it breathe the steam from a jug of hot water ; apply hot bran or linseed poultice, and if these are not effective, a mustard poultice along the windpipe, from the collar bone to the chin, and administer every ten minutes a tea spoonful of a mixture, made by dissolving one grain of tartar emetic in a table spoonful of water. This will be sufficient for four doses.

Sore Throat.—Apply a hot bran poultice, large enough to cover the front of the neck. If this does not give relief, and if the ulceration, which causes great difficulty in swallowing, be very severe, a mustard plaster, or mustard and linseed poultice, should be applied. Gargle the throat with sage tea and vinegar. Place the feet in hot mustard and water before going to bed, and take honey and vinegar mixed in equal quantities.

Fainting.—Take the patient to an open window or into the open air ; loosen the clothing around the neck and chest, and place in a reclining posture, with the head slightly raised. Dash cold water on the face and palms of the hands. Bathe the forehead with Eau-de-Cologne, vinegar, or strong spirit, and blow rapidly on the part bathed, to produce a sensation of intense cold. When the power of swallowing returns, administer a draught of cold water, or a tea spoonful of sal volatile in a wine glass of water.

Convulsions in infants are often produced by teething. Plunge the child up to the neck in a warm bath, in which the elbow can be borne comfortably; then rub the spine vigorously with hartshorn and oil, and administer a dose of castor oil as an aperient. A child in teething convulsions becomes rigid, its eyes roll, its features are distorted, and it becomes black in the face. When the attack is caused by irritation of the digestive organs (which is shown by the veins of the neck being swollen and the stomach quite hard), produce sickness by irritating the throat with a feather; after which administer castor oil.

Treatment of the Drowned.—Produce warmth and respiration. Quickly strip off the wet clothes, roll the patient in whatever dry warm woollen things are at hand. Place the body on the back, the head and shoulders being raised and supported by something firm. Open the mouth, and fasten down the tongue, if possible, to allow free passage of air to the windpipe. Move the arms up above the head till the palms touch, then down till the elbows press against the ribs. Do this at the rate of fifteen or twenty times a minute. Continue this till breathing returns; then restore warmth by plunging the body in a warm bath, or wrapping it in a hot blanket, if a bath cannot be procured, and applying hot bricks or water bottles to the feet, the palms of the hands, pit of stomach, and armpits. The body should be rubbed vigorously to promote circulation. Strong smelling-salts should be applied to the nostrils, and a mustard plaster to the chest and back, if the breathing is laboured. When the patient can swallow, strong coffee or hot brandy and water should be given as a stimulant.

A Cut Artery.—The blood flows from the wound in jets of a bright scarlet. Stop the flow at once by bandaging the part of the limb immediately above the place from whence the jet issues. Tear up anything that is at hand for this purpose. Tighten the bandage by inserting a stick and screwing it round, and get medical assistance as quickly as possible.

Clothes Catching Fire.—With a hearth-rug, carpet, bed coverlet, overcoat, or anything which may be at hand, envelope the person on fire, and throw him down; then roll him on the floor, and so smother out the flames. Then remove the patient's clothes very carefully, so as not to break the skin, and dress the burns.

Burns and Scalds.—Exclude the air as quickly as possible by applying a thick paste of whiting and sweet oil, or a linen rag dipped in a mixture of oil and lime water. Cover the latter with a sheet of cotton wadding split in two. The outer skin of the wadding will exclude the air. The oil and lime water should be applied frequently during the day, without removing the linen rag. Should the burn be very severe, so that the skin is raised into a blister, it will require dressing. To do this, snip the blister with a pair of sharp scissors, press out the water very gently, and apply the linen rag well saturated with the oil and lime water.

Wounds.—If caused by a fall, wash the part with lukewarm water and a sponge to remove any grit. If the wound is on the head, cut away the hair from the part; then hold the edges of the cut close together with the finger and thumb of the left hand, and with the right place strips of sticking plaster, a quarter of an inch wide and half an inch long, across the wound at intervals, or cover the wound with a plaster of goldbeater's skin. A cut finger should at once be bound up tightly with a strip of old linen, and covered with an old leather glove finger. The warm blood will coagulate and make a plaster, which will at once exclude the air, and heal the wound.

Stings of Insects.—Suck the part affected for ten or fifteen minutes; to do this the skin of the mouth should be perfectly free from scratches. then apply a solution of common washing soda or potash, or if these are not at hand, a plaster of common yellow soap.

Sprains.—Bathe the joint four or five times a-day with warm vinegar or hot water. Apply warm poultices between the bathings, and to reduce the swelling, rub frequently with camphorated oil for fifteen minutes at a time. To strengthen the joint after the swelling has gone down, bathe it four times a-day with salt and water, and frequently place it under a cold water tap, and allow the water to run over it.

A Bruise.—Bathe the part frequently with warm water, or steep it at once in warm water for a quarter of an hour, and apply hot bread poultices.

A Gathering.—Bathe the part in warm water several times a-day, and keep it constantly covered with warm bread or linseed meal poultices.

Whitlow is a gathering under the nail, which, being hard, presses on the swelling. Keep the part in hot water as much as possible, and apply plenty of hot bread poultices to soften the nail.

Chilblains.—To prevent them, wear woollen stockings, keep the feet dry, and allow the blood to circulate by wearing easy-fitting shoes. To cure them, rub two or three times a-day with a stimulating liniment of camphorated spirit of lime, or mustard liniment. If broken, wash in warm strained gruel, and apply soft linen rag spread with cold cream or spermaceti ointment.

Chapped Hands.—Wash with a paste made of oatmeal, using rain or boiled water; rub over with glycerine after each washing, and wear a pair of leather gloves during the night.

Ringworm.—To kill the fungus, wash the part several times a day, using soap and soda in abundance; cut away the hair, and after each washing apply black ink to the spot by means of a feather.

Hiccup.—Fill the mouth with cold water, and hold the breath as long as possible; repeat this several times.

Grit in the Eye.—If the substance cannot be seen on the eye-ball, it is generally lodged on the inner side of the upper eyelid, and scratches the eye-ball each time the lid is moved. Cause the eye to water freely by drawing the upper lid quite down over the under, and keeping it in that position for a minute. A copious flow of tears will follow, which will wash away the offending substance.

Bleeding at the Nose.—If the bleeding is from the right nostril, hold the right arm stretched out upwards for two or three minutes; if from the left, hold the left arm in the same position; or, apply a cold wet cloth to the spine, from between the shoulder blades, along the neck, to the back of the head. A piece of cold metal will answer the same purpose.

Bleeding from the Lungs.—This demands instant treatment, and perfect calmness on the part of those around, in order that the patient may not be excited. Administer half a tea cupful of vinegar or lime juice, or a tea cupful of water made very acid by means of alum or acetic acid. Apply cold water cloths, or a piece of ice wrapped in a cloth, to the chest, and hot water bottles to the feet. The head and shoulders must be low, the patient should remain perfectly still ; all food or drink must be cold, and a piece of ice must be kept almost constantly in the mouth.

To Purify Water.—Allow it to pass through a layer of powdered charcoal, or dissolve a tea spoonful of alum in each gallon of water.

To Disinfect a Room.—Remove all the contents into the open air ; let them remain for several days. All bedding and bedhangings must be carefully washed. Carpets should be hung on a line out of doors for a week, and then scoured. Scrape the paper from the walls, and wash them. Wash the paint work ; sprinkle the floor with chloride of lime for a day or two, then scrub the boards thoroughly. Allow fresh air to blow through the room all the time. Lastly, place in the middle of the floor an earthenware vessel containing half-a-pound of salt, a tea-cupful of water, two ounces of black manganese, and two of oil of vitriol. Shut the room up for several hours, then open the windows wide. Or take in a shovelful of red-hot wood charcoal, and shut it up in the room. The fumes of charcoal are suffocating.

Sulphur Fumigation can only be performed in a closed empty room, as the fumes are both bleaching and suffocating. A quarter of a pound of sulphur should be put into an old iron vessel, and set alight : it should be left standing on an iron plate, and the room kept closed for three or four hours ; then the windows should be freely opened to allow the escape of the smell. This is used generally rather as a means of getting rid of offensive insects than as a disenfectant.

CLEANING.

To Scour Wood-work.—Use plenty of clean cold water, soap, and a scrubbing brush ; the half of the outer husk of the cocoa nut is the best and cheapest scrubber. Hot water or soda will make wood-work yellow. Wash well with a flannel, then apply plenty of soap, and scrub vigorously in the direction of the grain of the wood ; a handful of white silver sand may be sprinkled on each part before the scrubbing process commences. Wash off the soap and sand with the flannel and plenty of water, if the wood-work is very dirty repeat the whole process. Wring the flannel tightly, and with it dry the part scrubbed as far as possible, finish by rubbing with a clean course cloth.

To wash Floor Cloth.—Sweep off all sand and grit, then take a flannel, warm water, and a little soap. Wash as much as the arm can conveniently reach at once, then soap the flannel and rub the part wetted. Wash off the soap and dry the floor cloth as far as possible with the flannel tightly wrung, rub perfectly dry with a soft cloth. Avoid using too much water, the flannel should be lightly wrung at each stage of the process, otherwise the water runs under the edges of the floor cloth and rots it.

To Polish French Polished Furniture.—If very dirty, wash with warm water and soap. Rub on boiled linseed oil and vinegar, mixed in equal parts, using a piece of cloth for the purpose; then rub vigorously with another piece of woollen cloth, and polish with a leather.

To Polish Mahogany.—Wash if very dirty with a little weak beer, rub well, then polish with turpentine and bees' wax.

To Wash Glass.—Use lukewarm water and soda, but no soap. Wash with a flannel; rinse in clear cold water; dry with a soft cloth, and polish with a leather.

To Wash Paint.—Use plenty of warm water and soap, but no soda. Wash well with a flannel; use a soft brush for corners and crevices; rinse well, and rub dry with a towel.

To Polish Plate.—Wash in warm soda and water, then well rub with a flannel slightly wet, dipped in whiting, sifted through a flannel. Rub this off with another flannel or piece of cloth, using a brush for the chased parts, and polish with a leather.

To Remove Rust from Steel.—Cover well with oil; let this remain for several days, then rub with a piece of woollen cloth and plenty of unslaked lime till the rust disappears. To prevent rust, rub the steel when not in use with melted suet.

To Clean Bronze.—Wash well with stale beer, and dry with a soft cotton or linen cloth.

To Clean Lacquered Work.—Wash in warm water and soap with a flannel, dry with a soft cotton cloth.

To Clean Brass.—Use a paste of rottenstone and sweet oil; rub this on with a piece of cloth, and polish with a leather.

To Wash Hairbrushes.—Dip the brush up and down in warm water, in which a little soda has been dissolved; do not wet the wood work. When clean, rinse in cold water, and dry at a little distance from the fire.

To Clean Looking Glasses.—Rub over with spirits of wine, or any other spirit; dry with an old silk handkerchief, and polish with a leather.

To Clean Windows.—Have two wash-leathers; wring one out of cold water till just damp; wash each pane with this, then polish with the dry leather.

To Scour a Carpet.—The carpet must be made quite free from dust by being well beaten and brushed with a carpet broom in the open air. It should then be stretched on a clean boarded floor and fastened down. Take clean warm water, a moderately hard brush, soft soap, a flannel, and plenty of coarse towels. Add a pint of bullock's gall to every two gallons of warm water. Proceed exactly as when scrubbing boards; first wet a portion of the carpet, then scrub it with the brush and soap until a good lather is raised, wash this off with the flannel, and rub the part as dry as possible with coarse towels. Do not make the carpet too wet in the washing process. It must remain stretched on the floor till dry; to hasten the drying the windows of the room should be kept open. A Kidderminster or Scotch carpet should be scoured on both sides. Brussels or Tapestry on one only.

To Remove Mildew from Linen.—Steep for ten or twelve hours in a mixture made by pouring a quart of boiling water on two ounces of chloride of lime, and adding three quarts of cold water.

Grease from Boards.—Half-a-pound of washing-soda; dissolve in a quart of boiling water; add as much unslaked lime as it will take up. With this cover the spot, let it remain a minute, then scour with very hot water, soap, and sand; repeat the operation several times. Or, spread a layer of wet Fuller's earth on the spot; let it remain all night; scour it off, and repeat the operation till the spots disappear.

Grease from Books.—Brush the spots over with turpentine, then wet with spirits of wine.

Grease from Carpets.—Scour in a mixture of a pint of ox gall, with four gallons hot water, using soft soap and a brush; well rinse in clean water, and rub dry with a coarse cloth.

Ink from Carpets.—Before the ink is dry, wash the part with plenty of cold water, using a sponge for the purpose. The use of acids would spoil the colour.

Ink from Print or Muslin.—Soak the part while wet in plenty of milk for several hours. Do not use acids, excepting for white things.

Ink from White Materials.—Apply salts of lemon, having previously wetted the part. Wash off after five minutes in plenty of cold water.

Paint from Cloth.—Rub vigorously with a piece of cloth dipped in turpentine till the spot disappears. Spirits of wine or strong lavender water will answer the same purpose.

Iron Moulds.—Apply salts of lemon wetted. Wash off with cold water.

Fruit Stains from Linen.—Tie up a little pearl ash in the spot before putting the linen in the copper to boil.

Wine Stains.—Drop melted tallow from a burning candle on the spot while wet. Allow it to remain for a few days, then scrape off the grease, and wash.

To Clean Coloured Silk.—Dissolve one pound of loaf sugar by pouring over it a tea cupful of boiling water; add to it one pound of soft soap; stew in a moderate oven for an hour, then add one pint of spirits of wine, and stir all well together. Lay the pieces of silk to be cleaned flat on a large table. Have close at hand two large tubs of clean cold water, plenty of hot irons, and an ironing table. Dip a hard clothes-brush into the cleansing mixture, and scrub each piece of silk on both sides for about five minutes. If very dirty, the pieces will, during the process, appear as if completely covered with wet mud. While in this state, dip each piece in the first tub of cold water, lifting it up and down by the corners, till quite free from the mixture; do not squeeze or wring it. Repeat the rinsing in the second water; throw each piece over a clothes-horse. When the water has ceased to drip, but while the silk is still wet, spread it on the ironing table, and smooth it with a hot iron on the wrong side. Ribbons may be cleaned in the same way. The sugar gives the necessary stiffness; the soap and spirits of wine take out the grease and dirt; while the cold water prevents the silk shrinking and taking the crinkled appearance seen in silks washed in warm water.

To Clean Black Silk.—Black silk becomes shiny by long wear. To remove this appearance, spread the widths on a large table, sponge each well on both sides with liquid ammonia, which may be bought at the chemist's for a few pence. While still damp, iron on the side to be turned inward.

To Wash a Coloured Woollen Dress.—Dissolve a half-a-pound of soap in boiling water pour upon it four gallons of hot soft water and a pint of bullock's gall, mix well together to form a lather. Having taken the skirt from the body of the dress and brushed off all loose dust, plunge it into the prepared water and lift it up and down rapidly till cleansed, but do not rub it except where there are grease spots. Lightly squeeze out the soapy water, but do not wring the material, then well rinse in plenty of clean cold water in which a handful of salt has been dissolved, dry in the open air in a good breeze if possible. When dry, fold carefully and mangle.

To Wash Flannels.—Dissolve half-a-pound of soap in a gallon of boiling water; add two more gallons, then, when the water is just hot enough to bear the hand comfortably, dip the flannels up and down in it, but do not rub. Repeat this once, then rinse in clean warm water. Squeeze dry, but do not wring. Shake well, and dry quickly in the open air.

Prints may be rubbed and wrung, but no soda must be used, and they must not be boiled. Rinse in plenty of clear cold water, in which salt or alum has been dissolved, and dry quickly in the open air.

To Starch and Iron Linen Collars.—Let the starch stand till luke warm, then remove the scum, dip in each article separately, wrong side outward. Squeeze as dry as possible, and hang wrong side uppermost on a horse in front of the fire to dry. When quite dry sprinkle lightly with clear cold water, roll up each article separately, wrong side outwards. Then roll the whole tightly in an ironing sheet and let them remain for eight or ten hours, so that the dampness may become equal throughout. Spread the ironing blanket on a firm table, over it pin the ironing sheet. The irons being hot rub each well on a paper containing powdered brick dust, then dust and try its heat on a coarse cloth. Lay the article to be ironed wrong side up, and quite straight, pass the iron rapidly over it, turn it right side up, then press the iron firmly and rapidly over it till perfectly dry and glazed. Hang in front of a brisk fire to finish the stiffening.

To Starch and Iron a Shirt.—Dip the front, collar, and cuffs only in the starch, with the wrong side outward. Squeeze as dry as possible, hang before the fire to dry, then sprinkle the starched portions and roll up tightly, cover with an ironing sheet, and let them lie for seven or eight hours to get evenly damp. Spread the shirt on the ironing table, the back being folded so that the two seams touch, iron the half of the back from the bottom to the neck, the latter being next the left hand. Turn and iron the other half of the back, then the wristbands, first lightly on the wrong, then with pressure on the right side. Next iron the sleeves, first plain, then into plaits. Now spread the whole front upwards quite flat, iron the shoulders, then the part below the front and the neck. Place the ironing board under the button side of of the front, and iron firmly till that part is quite dry and glossy. Then do the buttonhole side in the same way. Fold carefully and hang in front of the fire to dry.

To Iron Pocket Handkerchiefs.—Having allowed them to lie after sprinkling for seven or eight hours tightly folded, spread one at a time on the ironing board with the selvage running from right to left, pass the iron lightly over the wrong side, then turn and finish on the right. The iron must be passed across and across in lines parallel with the selvage, or the material is pulled out of shape and often torn.

To Clean Lace.—Fold it in lengths of a quarter of a yard, tack these to prevent tearing in the washing process. Wash with white soap and warm water, rinse well in plenty of cold water, and dry in the open air. *To Stiffen.*—Dissolve two ounces of loaf sugar in a pint of water, undo the tacking, dip the lace into the solution and squeeze it as dry as possible. *To Dry.*—Sew a piece of clean white flannel tightly round a stoneware bottle, tack the linen singly on the flannel round the bottle, taking care to keep it quite straight, fill the bottle with boiling water, and let the lace remain till dry, then pull each little loop of the edge straight with a pin. Remove it carefully from the bottle and fold it straight.

To Clean Marble.—Marble tables, washstands, and chimney-pieces are easily soiled, stained, or greased, and their high polish is soon lost unless they are used with care. White marble becomes discoloured by smoke, or by the use of dirty dusters. To restore the colour:—Mix together in equal quantities, bullock's gall and a jelly made by boiling yellow soap with a small quantity of water;—add to this half the quantity of spirits of wine, and mix the whole to the consistence of a paste by adding dry pipe-clay. Lay this mixture thickly on the marble; leave it for two or three days; then wash it off, and apply a fresh coating if necessary till the colour is restored.

To Remove Ink-stains from Marble, apply a paste made of soap jelly mixed with powdered unslaked lime. This must lie on the stain for several weeks, when it must be washed off and the part scoured with powdered unslaked lime, soft soap, hot water, and a brush.

Marble, after washing, should always be restored to the high polish, which is one of its chief beauties, by hard rubbing with some soft substance;—a piece of felt is the best thing for the purpose.

Feather Beds require more care than mattresses of hair or wool, and are more weakening to the system, owing to their warmth and softness (which, however, render them agreeable to old people). Where they are used, the mistress of the house should herself make them in turn, to ensure that they are well tossed and beaten every few days; otherwise the feathers are gathered into lumps by the perspiration of the sleeper.

To Clean them thoroughly, the feathers should be emptied out of the tick on to the clean bare floor of an empty room. A good plan is to have a fresh or spare tick ready at once; but if the same tick is to be used again, a fine day should be chosen, because the washing and drying must be performed quickly, or the colours will look dingy. After the tick is dried and mangled, the seams must be examined, and mended neatly with stout linen thread wherever the stitches have given way; the inner side should be well rubbed with dry soap, to prevent the escape of the feathers between the threads of the material. The feathers should be well shaken about in a large coarse hair sieve to free them from dust; then all the masses should be separated, and quills from which the down is worn picked out. As each handful is thus separated and picked, it should be placed in the clean tick, which should be spread on a sheet, close at hand. When all the feathers are replaced, the tick should be closely sewn up, and the bed will be ready for use. The process of bed cleaning is a long and tedious one, and should be performed by some one who is not likely to be often called away, so that the feathers and down may not be carried over the rest of the house.

Flock Beds and Mattresses may be cleaned in the same way. The softness of a flock bed depends upon the flock being well teased and picked before it is put into the tick. Horse hair can be washed. Should the bed or mattress need disinfecting, the tick, when emptied, should be plunged into warm water containing carbolic acid ; its contents, having been spread on the floor of an empty room, should be fumigated with burning sulphur for a day, the doors and windows of the room being tightly closed. No person should enter the room while the fumes are in it.

Impurities in Water.—Water of wells or springs is often made impure by drainage, through impure matter passing into it. In farm yards, the pump is often near cow sheds, manure heaps, etc. Even if no such cause of impurity is visible on the surface, underground drains often pass near the well or pump, and decaying matter oozes through the brickwork or through the joints of the pipes. In many cases it is only gas which escapes into the water ; there is no appearance of impurity ; but this gas is deadly poison, and a fruitful source of dysentery and cholera. Water has in a remarkable degree the power of absorbing all such gases. Water brought into houses by means of leaden pipes may become impure by contact with them. The same evil results from the water being stored in leaden cisterns ; for the carbonic acid contained in spring water dissolves a portion of the leaden pipe, and produces a poisonous mineral salt. Water stored in open cisterns absorbs whatever poisonous gas may be in the air near it. The cisterns themselves often become foul, and some of the vegetable growths found in dirty cisterns are poisonous.

Insects often deposit their eggs in open cisterns. This shows that there is some impurity in the water, for the larvæ of insects act as scavengers, and it is by a natural instinct that the insect selects such foul water as will afford food to its young.

A filter has, within the last few years, been invented by Professor Bischof, which has many advantages over that ordinarily employed. A layer of spongy iron is used, and the water is made to filter through this very slowly ; the iron, by chemical action, frees the water from the more subtle impurities which the sand, etc., leaves untouched ; as, for instance, from salts of lead. These filters can be cleaned and re-packed with new filtering substance by the user. They can be obtained in most towns, or direct from the patentees at 505 Oxford Street, London.

ADDENDA.

Home-made Yeast.—Two ounces of hops, a gallon of water, half-a-pound of flour, half-a-pint of brewers' yeast. Boil the hops in the water for twenty minutes; strain, and let it stand till lukewarm; then mix the flour into a smooth batter, with a little of the lukewarm liquid; add it to the rest of the liquid; then add the half-pint of yeast; stir it well round, bottle it up at once in half-pint ginger beer bottles, and tie the corks down tightly. It is now ready for use at any time, and will keep good for several weeks. One bottle will be sufficient to raise 14lbs. of bread. Brewers' yeast need not be used every time the yeast is made. Two bottles of the home-made yeast, if quite fresh, and actively fermenting, will answer the same purpose.

Home-made Vinegar.—Boil four gallons of soft water for an hour, put it into a clean cask, and when cold, add to it two quarts of treacle. Mix well together till the treacle is dissolved; stir in two table spoonfuls of brewers' yeast, and let it stand in a warm place for a fortnight to ferment. Then dip a sheet of brown paper, cut in strips, into treacle, and put these strips into the liquid. When the fermentation has quite ceased the vinegar is ready for use.

Carbolic Acid is a cheap and powerful disinfectant, and can be used with very little trouble. It is sold in shilling packets, containing about 1 lb. It may be thrown down drains to kill the effluvia arising after infectious matters from the sick-room have been poured away; or sprinkled on the floors of infected chambers before they are swept; or allowed to stand about in various parts or the dwelling. It may also be used in washing floors, bedding, and clothing.

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